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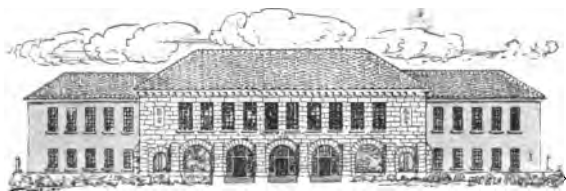
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PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
THIRTEENTH ANNIVERSARY
OF THE
UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION

OF THE
STATE OF NEW YORK,
HELD JULY 12TH, 13TH AND 14TH, 1876.

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FOR THE YEAR 1875-6.

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THE UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION

OF THE

STATE OF NEW YORK.

I. SKETCH OF ITS ORIGIN, OBJECTS AND PLAN.

[Reprinted from the Proceedings of former years, by direction of the Convocation.]

At a meeting of the Regents of the University, held on the 9th day of January, 1863, the reports of colleges and academies, and their mutual relations, being under consideration, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That it is expedient to hold annually, under the direction of this Board, a meeting of officers of colleges and academies, and that a committee be appointed to draft a programme of business for the proposed meeting, to fix the time and place, and to make such other arrangements as they may deem necessary.

The committee of arrangements on the part of the Regents were Chancellor Pruyn, Governor Seymour, Mr. Benedict, Mr. Hawley, Mr. Clinton, Mr. Perkins and Secretary Woolworth.

The meeting was held according to appointment, on the 4th and 5th days of August, 1863. Chancellor Pruyn briefly stated the objects entertained by the Regents, which were mainly "to consider the mutual relations of colleges and academies, and to promote, as largely as possible, the cause of liberal education in our State. While it is a part of the duty of the Regents of the University to visit the fourteen * literary colleges and more than two hundred academies subject to their supervision, it is obvious that this cannot be done as frequently as desirable, and that some such method as is now proposed, whereby teachers may compare views with each other, and with the Regents, and discuss methods of instruction and general modes of procedure, is alike practicable and necessary.

"A law enacted more than three-fourths of a century ago was cited, by which the University was organized and clothed with powers similar to those held by the Universities of Cambridge and Oxford, in England.

* Now twenty-three (1874).

The University of the State of New York, though generally regarded as a legal fiction, is, in truth, a grand reality. The numerous institutions of which it is composed, are not, indeed, as in England, crowded into a single city, but are scattered, for popular convenience, over the entire State. It is hoped that the present meeting will more fully develop this fact, in accordance with which the officers of colleges and academies now convened are cordially welcomed as members of a great State University. It is also confidently expected that the deliberations now inaugurated will result in the more intimate alliance and coöperation of the various institutions holding chartered rights under the Regents of the University."

The Chancellor and Secretary of the Regents were, on motion, duly elected presiding and recording officers of the meeting. A committee, subsequently made permanent for the year and designated as the executive committee, was appointed by the Chancellor to prepare an order of proceedings. Among other recommendations of the committee, the following were submitted and unanimously adopted :

The Regents of the University of this State have called the present meeting of the officers of the colleges and academies subject to their visitation, for the purpose of mutual consultation respecting the cause of education, especially in the higher departments. It becomes a question of interest whether this convention shall assume a permanent form and meet at stated intervals, either annually, biennially or triennially. In the opinion of the committee, it seems eminently desirable that the Regents and the instructors in the colleges and academies should thus meet, with reference to the attainment of the following objects:

1st. To secure a better acquaintance among those engaged in these departments of instruction, with each other and with the Regents.

2d. To secure an interchange of opinions on the best methods of instruction in both colleges and academies; and, as a consequence,

3d. To advance the standard of education throughout the State.

4th. To adopt such common rules as may seem best fitted to promote the harmonious workings of the State system of education.

5th. To consult and coöperate with the Regents in devising and executing such plans of education as the advanced state of the population may demand.

6th. To exert a direct influence upon the people and the Legislature of the State, personally and through the press, so as to secure such an appreciation of a thorough system of education, together with such pecuniary aid and legislative enactments, as will place the institutions here represented in a position worthy of the population and resources of the State.

And for the attainment of these objects, the committee recommend the adoption of the following resolutions :

Resolved, That this meeting of officers of colleges and academies be hereafter known and designated as "The University Convocation of the State of New York."

Resolved, That the members of this Convocation shall embrace,

1. The members of the Board of Regents.

2. All instructors in colleges, normal schools, academies and higher departments of public schools that are subject to the visitation of the Regents, and (by amendment of 1868) the trustees of all such institutions.

3. The president, first vice-president, and the recording and corresponding secretaries of the New York State Teachers' Association.

Resolved, That the Chancellor and Secretary of the Board of Regents shall act severally as the presiding officer and permanent secretary of the Convocation.

Resolved, That the meeting of this Convocation shall be held annually, in the city of Albany, on the first Tuesday in August [see *amendment*], at 10 o'clock, A. M., unless otherwise appointed by the Board of Regents. [*Amended*, in 1873, as to the time of meeting, by making it the first Tuesday after the Fourth of July, except when the Fourth occurs on Monday, in which case it shall be the second Tuesday thereafter.]

Resolved, That at each annual Convocation the Chancellor shall announce the appointment, by the Regents, of an executive committee of seven members, who shall meet during the recess of the Convocation, at such time and place as the Regents may direct, with authority to transact business connected with its general object.

At the fourth anniversary, held August 6th, 7th and 8th, 1867, it was

Resolved, That the Regents be requested to invite the attendance of representatives of colleges of other States at future anniversaries of the Convocation.

At the fifth anniversary, held August 4th, 5th and 6th, 1868, the following resolutions were unanimously adopted :

Resolved, That there be appointed by the Chancellor, at each annual meeting, a committee of necrology, to consist of three persons.

Resolved, That it shall be the duty of each member of the Convocation to notify the chairman of the committee of necrology of the decease of members occurring in their immediate neighborhood or circle of acquaintance, as an assistance to the preparation of their report.

Resolved, That the secretary publish, with the report of each year's proceedings, the original resolutions of 1863, as they are or may be from time amended, together with the two foregoing, as a means of better informing the members of the Convocation in regard to its nature and the purposes of its organization.

II. MINUTES OF THE THIRTEENTH ANNIVERSARY, HELD JULY 12TH, 13TH AND 14TH, 1876.

The sessions of the thirteenth anniversary of the University Convocation of the State of New York were held at the Capitol, in the city of Albany, beginning on Wednesday, the 12th day of July, 1876, at 10:30 A. M.

Chancellor Pruyn, as president *ex-officio*, called the Convocation to order, and, at his request, the Rev. Dr. Upson, one of the Regents, said the Lord's prayer.

The Chancellor then addressed the Convocation as follows:

CHANCELLOR PRUYN'S ADDRESS.

In the words of welcome which I addressed to the members of the Convocation when they last met, I referred to the great interest which would attach to the present year as the Centennial of our independence. The day which marked that event, the 4th of July, 1876, was celebrated throughout our country with an earnestness, a spirit, I may almost say a devotion such as was never before known, and which gave strong evidence of the deep interest felt by our people in their institutions, and that filled all of us, I am sure, with warm hopes for the future.

That "eternal vigilance is the price of liberty" is a maxim just as true and quite as important now as when first uttered, and if the liberal institutions our country has enjoyed for one century are to be carried through a second with its augmented population, its large wealth, its greater luxury and its increased temptations to acquire power, it can be accomplished only by the constant and vigilant discharge by the people of that duty which they owe to those institutions.

The obligation of intelligent and educated men in our country to take an earnest interest in public affairs is one so clear that I am sure I need not urge it upon you. But the duty, like many others, is unfortunately very much overlooked, and I trust the occasion will justify me in speaking to you a very few words of the importance of its diligent and conscientious discharge. It is quite true that those who are engaged during every day in the duties of the school-room or class-room cannot be expected to occupy themselves with the details of what are called party politics. Nor would I wish them to do so, even if they could. They would be neither interested in them nor profited by them.

With us, and indeed in every country in which constitutional principles of government exist, we find the people divided into two great political parties, holding to a large extent conflicting views as to public matters and the measures of government, each claiming that it presents the best candidates for office, and that its measures will best promote the interests of the country. Occasionally a third party springs up, most generally through some special circumstances, or formed on some engrossing question of the day, often one of great interest, but which, being disposed of, the organization it called into existence passes away.

We all, therefore, as a general rule, find it necessary to determine with which of the great political parties of the day we will act; not in the spirit of blind, unthinking attachment, but after a careful examination not only of the professions of parties, but of their principles and their conduct.

The teacher should never become a partisan. There is no need of this. Duty can be discharged in a quiet way after intelligent inquiry such as I have spoken of, and will carry satisfaction with its discharge.

Nor should any person fail to criticise, in a manly and independent spirit, the conduct or principles of any party with which he may have acted. This is absolutely necessary to prevent party from degenerating into a mere faction, or becoming the expression of the individual opinions of those who control its machinery.

Fortunately we now have a large and increasing body of liberal and cultured men in our country, which we owe mainly to our institutions of learning, who are prepared, by an independent exercise of the elective franchise, to correct the evils and excesses of party spirit, and thus do most essential service in securing faithful public officers and an honest administration of the government. It is with this body of candid and independent men I trust all engaged in instructing the youth of the country will act.

I was requested by the executive committee to say somewhat at this time which should bear on the interest attaching to the new era of our country on which we have just entered. Learning that Gov. Seymour, so thoroughly versed in our history, would address you on this occasion, I left that field to him; but impressed with the importance of the subject on which I have spoken, I felt that a few words in regard to it would not be out of place.

If the educated men of our country will do their duty to its institutions, a second century of our existence will, under the blessing of God, be one which will strengthen free government and give further happiness, prosperity and power to these United States of America.

On behalf of the Regents of the University, I welcome your appearance here, and trust that our session may prove to be agreeable and useful, and promote the interests of education in our great commonwealth.

The executive committee made a preliminary report through the chairman, Professor Ransom B. Welch, D. D., of Union College.

A paper on Pre-Islamic Literature was read by J. G. Lansing, A. B., of Cairo, Egypt. The following is an abstract of the paper:

The Arabic arose out of the Pyrias and Hebrew. Its first principal dialects were those of Himyar and Koreish; the Koreishite being the pure or perspicuous Arabic. The Himyarite alphabet was the first used. Subsequently the Arabic and the Cufic became identical. The Arabic alphabet was perfected 327 A. H. Pre-Islamic literature was preeminently poetic in its development. War, hospitality and eloquence formed the triple crown that Arabia claimed for her sons. The existence of poetry in Arabia is a phenomenon more wonderful than any in the world's literature, because of its purity, perfection, absolute naturalness and innate existence. The Arabians possessed keen sensibilities, wonderful physical perceptions, tempered in many instances by a moral nature. Poetry was instinctive, indigenous. It became the natural medium of expression. Historical data, oratory, philosophy, everything was committed to poetic form. Some of the best specimens of Pre-Islamic poetry were delivered impromptu without any premeditation. Poetic contests were held in the market of Occaz, and the prize production was transcribed in golden letters and suspended in the corner of the Kaaba at Mecca. Poets were divided into four classes. First, those of

El Gaheleah, or times of ignorance, as Pre-Islamic times were termed. Second, El Muchadremoon, or those who existed shortly before and were cotemporaries of Mohammed. Third, El Moowalledoon, or a poet, one of whose parents was of a foreign nationality. Fourth, El Mutaacheroon, or later poets. Three forces contributed so much to Pre-Islamic poetry. First, the resources and flexibility of the language. The Arabic is in all its relations the most perfectly formed and the most extensively used of all the Shemitic languages. Second, the character of the people. Their perfect physical development and organic structure contributed greatly to the fund of mental energy. The insular position of the country prevented degeneracy by conquest and commerce. The nomadic incidents of the peninsular life preserved the integrity of the language. Third, the character of the times. The times were warlike. Religious enthusiasm, chivalrous love and honor and liberty, are the three mighty principles that sway the masses of men. Arabia, embroiled by intestine wars and tribal encounters, produced through these many heroic poets. Arabic poetry, in its first dawn, was pre-eminently objective. The Arab loved martial movement, active passion, freedom from introspectiveness. But later, when the spirit of monasticism had penetrated into Arabia from India and Upper Asia, and the Arabians had come into contact with Indian, Greek and Parisian literature, they devoted more time to meditation and study, and thus was introduced Mohammedan asceticism. It was at this point that the subjective element, the pre-eminent character of suffism first entered and began to develop itself in Arabic literature. Philosophic thought or literature developed slowly and was pantheistic in its development.

Regent Hale expressed much gratification in listening to this paper. Some discussion arose as to the relative age of the Arabic and Hebrew languages, both sides claiming the higher antiquity.

Rev. Dr. Fairbairn, warden of St. Stephen's College, read a paper on "Elisions to be Observed in Reading Latin Verse." It was an answer to an observation in Andrew's Latin Grammar, that the letters elided in scanning are not to be omitted in reading the verse. He first quoted Quintilian, who advocates elisions even in prose. His first argument was that all the literary languages of the world require elisions. He illustrated this by reading Greek, French, German and English verse. His second argument was that its rhythmical composition required it, which was illustrated by quotations from Virgil and the Christian hymns of the middle ages. He introduced the testimony of Lord Kames and of Dr. Johnson in favor of making the elisions in reading. He closed by saying that if Boswell had read to Johnson the paragraph from Andrews' Latin Grammar, Johnson would have given up the ghost and expired in disgust.

The subject of this paper was discussed at some length by Regent Hale, who warmly favored the views of Dr. Fairbairn, and who also introduced classical illustrations in support of the same.

Dr. King, of Fort Edward, remarked how instructive and enjoyable a dry subject may be made when treated by one who, like Dr. Fairbairn, thoroughly understands his subject and sticks to his text.

Col. Charles J. Wright, A. M., of Peekskill Academy, read a paper on "Military Drill in Academies."

An animated discussion followed, which was participated in by Instructors McAfee and R. C. Flack, of Claverack, Secretary Woolworth, Principal Thompson of Amsterdam, Prof. Shackford of Cornell University, Dr. King of Fort Edward, Vice-Chancellor Benedict, Principal Bradley of Albany High School, Prof. Wells of Griffith Institute, and Principal Cutting of Waterville Union School.

Prof. McAfee, in opening the discussion, spoke as follows:

I rise to express my approbation of the paper just read. I have had opportunity of observing the workings of the drill as an exercise in distinction from the other methods of exercise both in the schools of Connecticut and New York, the light and the heavy gymnastics, with a gymnasium well supplied with apparatus and a competent instructor. While in the well fitted gymnasium it is difficult to get a corporal's guard to come willingly to the exercise, we have no trouble in engrafting the drill on the school routine and making it a pleasant and healthful exercise. Of course this is applicable to boys; for young ladies we use with best results, the Dio Lewis light gymnastic exercises. An exercise to be useful must be agreeable or it will fail in the results desired, and the drill furnishes that which is most agreeable and popular.

Principal Thompson, of Amsterdam academy, said:

We do not understand the refining influence of Indian war clubs and army muskets. If the military drill is to be substituted for other methods of physical culture, what is to become of the girls? We believe physical discipline or exercise is not distasteful to any sex or class of students, and the kind or manner of exercise must be determined by the skill in charge of each institution. It is not safe to claim that for all schools and sexes military drill can alone secure physical and moral manhood. Nor should the impression be allowed to prevail here that the superiority of this or that school is wholly dependent upon the system of physical exercise used in it. The quality of every school depends upon the man — the brains at the helm.

Principal Bradley of the Albany High School, being called upon by the Chancellor, said that his observation led him to think that military drill in academies and colleges, in order to be productive of the best results, should be entirely optional and voluntary on the part of the student. If, as seemed to be generally acknowledged by the gentlemen who have already spoken, the drill is irksome and unpopular, its advantages are not of sufficient importance to justify its adoption. Students readily see the unfairness of subjecting their recreation to the same rules as their study. They feel, and have a right to feel, that their amusements and recreation should be entirely of their own choosing, so far as it is legitimate and unobjectionable. Military drill might be attractive and useful to some, but should not be forced upon all.

Most of those taking part in the discussion favored the views of Col. Wright. Vice-Chancellor Benedict dissented very strongly, regarding military drill as an incongruity in school, and likely ere long to become as obsolete as ordinary gymnastics are fast becoming.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

A paper entitled "A Plea for the Study of Latin," was read by Rev. J. A. Wells, D.D., of Griffith Institute, Springfield. The following is an abstract:

There is a strong tendency in the present generation to the neglect of classical studies, in favor of the physical sciences and of what is called a practical education. The result is to injuriously lower the standard of cultivation required of the educated man. This tendency to neglect classical study must, however, be regarded as only temporary. There is a solid worth in classical culture which must, of necessity, enforce its claims upon an enlightened public opinion. As, in a river, there are eddying currents which seem to flow backward, but always come around and flow on with the stream; so popular opinion, which seems now to neglect classical literature in favor of something which can be more easily and rapidly learned, will in due time come around and promote it to its proper place in the curriculum of the scholar. The claim of literature to be considered as of at least equal importance with physical science, is disputed by some. But when we consider that the object of education is the development and cultivation of the mind of man, and fitting him for his place in society; also the pre-eminent adaptation of literature for the accomplishment of that object, we can no longer question the importance of literary studies. The Latin language is the gateway to the whole circle of literary studies. It opens the way to all, ancient as well as modern literature. One great advantage of the study of the Latin is the aid which it gives in understanding and correctly using the English. Full one-half of all the words in the English language are derived from Latin. This point was argued at length and the conclusion reached, that, as many of our words came from Latin, no person who does not know them in the original language can use them with the propriety of an educated man. Any uneducated person may use words of Anglo-Saxon origin with sufficient exactness for his business of life, but it requires some higher cultivation to use words of Latin origin without danger of impropriety. Hence the importance to the educated man of a knowledge of the venerable speech which has given so much of itself to make up our language. The Latin language is one of the best means of mental discipline known. Each one of its results in the mental character of the student is one which marks the educated man and serves to distinguish him from the uneducated. The effect of the study of Latin upon the youth is inspiring and elevating. There is an aristocracy of cultivated intellect, of taste and propriety. The Latin language is universally regarded as the vestibule through which aspiring youth passes in gaining admission to that higher rank of mind. As soon as the youth has learned enough of Latin to begin to enjoy it, he begins to look upward to the college. It is for the interest of higher education that the youth in institutions of preparation be encouraged to pursue the Latin.

Prof. N. B. Martin expressed his general concurrence in the views of the author in respect to the value and importance of the study of the Latin tongue, and thought even that those views might be still further extended. He considered a knowledge of that language to be almost indispensable for the acquisition of physical science, since almost every one of the numberless specific names in botany and the other sciences

of nature is Latin. One point, however, of the paper seemed to him to call for correction. The statement that a proportion — ranging from less than one-half to as much as five-sevenths of our words — is of Latin origin, is liable to misconception. The statement is true numerically, but it gives a wrong impression in regard to the actual English spoken and written among us. While many such words find place in our English dictionaries, they are yet words of rare and occasional use only; while the Anglo-Saxon supplies almost the whole of that class of words in which the vigor and vitality of our speech are found. Even Johnson, whose use of Latin forms was so ample and characteristic, could, upon occasion, give accurate and beautiful expression to his thoughts in the simplest Anglo-Saxon. Much of the most beautiful poetry of our language is of the purest Saxon type, as appears in our noble and simple Doxology, "From all that dwell," etc., in which only two words are from the Latin. Byron, too, loved and employed these Saxon words, as in his lines on the destruction of Sennacherib's host, "The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold," etc., which are almost wholly of this kind. The question, therefore, is not of the number or proportion of Latin words in English, but of their character and importance. They may form the more numerous parts of our words as printed in our dictionary, but they are not the most numerous words in the usage of our great writers.

President Raymond, of Vassar College, entered a friendly protest against what he feared might be understood as the drift of Dr. Martin's criticism. It seemed to disparage the importance of the Latin element in our composite language as presented by the essayist, but it was on grounds which left the main argument untouched. No one would deny the vitality and vigor of the Anglo-Saxon part of our vocabulary, or the predominance of Anglo-Saxon words in practical affairs in poetry and popular oratory. But how was it in regard to science and philosophy? He did not refer to mere technical terms, but to the words of Latin origin having an established place in literary use and indispensable for the unfolding of thought. In the philosophy of mind and morals, of law and government and religion, in the discussion of the great questions of humanity which occupy and divide the thinking world, it is simply impossible to express the thoughts in English except by large use of Latin words, and equally impossible to appreciate the distinctions and estimate the arguments without a knowledge of their exact meaning. It was sometimes said that, though the benefit of Latin training should be considered, it was not certain that the same benefit might not be secured through some other study. But here was something, and something vital to culture, which nothing else could effect. The roots of all scientific, historical and philosophical criticism are found, for the English speaking nations, in the Latin tongue. All the growth of our western thought, in the highest realms of thought, has been along these living lines. There is no other possible way of introducing a boy to the word of learning and scholarly thought, but by teaching him the dialect spoken therein; no other novitiate which will make him "of the guild of the thinkers," no other process by which his manhood (which is Saxon) can be humanized (which is Latin). President Raymond thought this historic relation of Latin to philosophical thought a far more important consideration than any mere numerical

proposition, and that this alone must make it forever the sheet-anchor of sound education.

Principal Cavert urged that while Anglo-Saxon furnishes our common words and prevails in the nursery, it is proposed to make children into men, and this is to be done largely by the use and discipline of Latin.

After further discussion, in the course of which President Raymond used the term *work* by way of illustration, Regent Hale asked what word of the Latin expresses the idea of *work*, as we understand it.

President Raymond said the Romans never rose to the sublime idea of work, which may be characterized as an American idea, especially appropriate to this centennial year.

Professor Cornelius M. O'Leary, M. D., Ph. D., of Manhattan College, read a paper entitled "Aphasia in Relation to Language and Thought." The paper stated that this disease came to be fully known only within a short time. Aphasia, said the doctor, is a disease of the brain which impairs the power of speech, the memory of words and their co-ordination in speech. He contended that the ascertainment of the true nature of this trouble is well calculated to help the solution of the problem whether speech is independent of language. Messrs. Max Muller and Professor Whitney most strongly incline now to materially opposite views. Muller says that without language there can be no thought; whereas Prof. Whitney maintains that the two are most widely separated. Many of the most eminent physiologists in Europe and this country have turned their attention to the localization of the faculty of speech, and out of 541 cases reported, 513 regard the left anterior convolution of the brain. This supposed and the centre of ideation being differently located, the question arises whether the seat of speech function being injured, the intellect can still continue to perform its work. If it cannot, it is evident that Muller's opinion is correct, that there can be language without speech. The experiments all point in this direction, so that the conclusion reached by Dr. O'Leary, is that aphasia amply proves that language is the instrument of thought.

Dr. Wilson of Cornell University, remarked that he did not intend to discuss the subject at length. These investigations into the physiology of the brain are very important for the influence they will doubtless exert on the psychology of the mind. He had no doubt that the results would compel both the students of physiology, who pursue the merely material phenomena, and the students of mental science, who look merely on the mental side, to change their views and their phraseology. Each will modify the views of the other. I wish chiefly to caution students in this department against accepting too hastily the doctrine of the localization of specific classes of mental phenomena with special parts of the brain—the hemispheres I mean. There is I think just now a little too much tendency in that direction. I think, however, there is already a beginning of a reaction. I doubt whether we shall succeed in thus localizing them. Brown-Sequard has expressed doubts about the inferences which Ferrier has drawn from his experiments and observations. And in fact I learn that Ferrier has begun to doubt them him

self. Brown-Sequard says he has known cases in which disease began on the left side of the brain, where the faculty of speech is located, with aphasia, then speech returned and disease attacked the corresponding convolutions on the right side, with aphasia again; but finally the power of speech was regained and the disease proceeded until both the anterior lobes were destroyed, and yet the power of speech continued after the loss of those parts or convolutions to which the power of speech has been assigned had become complete.

Principal Aaron White, A. M., of Canastota Union School, read a paper on "Land Surveying as Practiced in the State of New York."

The subject is introduced by an allusion to the rights of the good citizen at home. Land surveying defines and guards the boundaries of the homestead. What is to be said belongs chiefly to the country and not to the city. The method is briefly noticed, also the instruments and the record; then a comparison is made between the work of the "original" surveyor and the work required of those who follow him in these times. The greater part of the paper is made up by presenting, in detail, the causes of uncertainty in retracing old lines. The original work was quite imperfect, no attention paid to the "variation," loose chaining, hilly ground, haste in the work — fifteen miles per day — and no reviews. Nature of the monuments perishable, nearly all now gone, insufficiency of descriptions in deed of conveyance, field notes wanting.

In conclusion, some suggestions were made as to the remedies for this unfortunate condition of affairs. The sovereign power of the State must provide the remedies. The work of surveying should be done by competent persons, having authority to decide, on the spot, all questions relating to boundary lines. The State must furnish a system of permanent monuments; must establish a scientific method of surveying, and must see to it that conveyances, when recorded, shall clearly describe the property to be conveyed. This paper is not presented as a thorough discussion, but is designed to awaken attention and to provoke "investigation."

EVENING SESSION — 8 O'CLOCK.

Instructor W. W. Dawley, A. M., of Amsterdam Academy, read a paper on "School Supervision and State Aid."

The paper shows some of the patent and lamentable defects in our supervising offices, and suggests to modify the present system by the abolishment of the State superintendent's office and the creation of a single body which should control common and normal schools, as well as academies. School commissioners should be appointed by the supervisors of each county, subject to the supervising board proper, and should be paid by a county tax per day for time actually employed in school affairs. Academies should receive State aid, equally with normal schools. They are supplying common school teachers and doing equally laudable work. Normal schools are local and should not receive more than any other institutions doing the same work. State aid should go where it can effect the greatest good to the greatest number. Normal school graduates do not teach in common schools, nor in this State as a general rule: hence, those institutions should receive aid which supply common school instructors.

Principal Isaac O. Best, A. M., of Clinton Grammar School, read a paper on "Instruction in Vocal Music," after which the Convocation adjourned at 9.30 o'clock, to-morrow morning.

SECOND DAY.

THURSDAY—9.30 O'CLOCK, A. M.

Vice-Chancellor Benedict called the Convocation to order at 9.30 o'clock, and Rev. Dr. Martin led in the use of the Lord's Prayer.

Principal M. P. Cavert, A. M., of Rhinebeck Union School, read a paper on "Prizes in Schools as usually Distributed."

Mr. Cavert said in substance—Your speaker is fully aware that there are at least two opinions on the subject of giving prizes in schools, and that each has its advocates; he also has some appreciation of the difficulties by which the discussion of the subject is surrounded. That both parties are right is not very probable. Much of the difficulty, doubtless, lies in confounding one thing with another—in assuming analogies where none exist, and in making no distinction between emulation and selfish ambition—between a system of *rewards* and a system of prizes. We are to discuss "prizes as usually distributed."

How then is the distribution usually made? Why, generally, to him who shall exhibit the highest grade of scholarship in one or more departments of learning, or to him whose conduct shall be least exceptional, something which, above everybody else, he may carry off as a prize; and not to *all who shall acquit themselves well, a reward*.

To this practice there are many and grave objections; and yet we find men of honesty, learning and talent, who think the practice commendable and defensible. For the purpose of gathering the general opinion of the schools, the following questions were sent to sixty-five colleges and universities in twenty-eight different States:

1. What is the money value of all the prizes that may be given in your institution in a single year?
2. Do the majority in any class strive to gain the prize?
3. Whatever the number at the beginning, how much does that number diminish, as the time for awarding the prize approaches?
4. Are students apt to neglect one study in order that they may gain a prize in another?
5. Are jealousies and animosities and charges of unfairness and injustice apt to grow out of these contests?
6. Do those who win the prizes, as a rule, afterwards distinguish themselves in those particular departments in which their prizes were won?
7. Do they distinguish themselves in other departments, and in practical life, above the majority of their fellows?
8. Weighing all the pros and cons, would you advise the founding of prizes in schools where they do not exist?
9. Would a general statute, authorizing a change of the John Doe medal or prize endowment to the John Doe Library endowment, be desirable?

Omitting the answers to the first question and taking the others in the order of their numbers, the answers were:

2. Seventeen colleges answer No, and two answer Yes.
3. A large majority report a diminution.
4. Eleven answer Yes, seven answer No.
5. Ten answer Yes, eight answer No.
6. Ten answer No, five answer Yes.
7. Eleven answer No, four answer Yes.
8. Twenty-three answer No, six answer Yes.
9. Eight New York colleges answer Yes, one answers No.

Mr. Cavert gave the answers in full to several of the circulars, a number of letters accompanying the answers; or, in place thereof, three letters advocating prizes, used on a former occasion, and then proceeded with a somewhat elaborate argument against prizes in schools as generally distributed, and closed with the following summary:

1. The prize system stimulates the few and fails to stimulate the many. On this point its advocates and opponents generally agree.
2. It acts unfavorably upon the majority, either through discouragement or neglect, or both; and, hence, intellectual harm.
3. It precludes the successful employment of those higher and worthier motives which affect man as a moral and social being, whose right employment better fits him for a true and noble life.
4. It operates unfavorably upon the competitors themselves, in accordance with the well-known law, that a growth produced by unnatural and extraordinary stimulus is abnormal and unhealthy.
5. It has a strong if not a legitimate tendency to unpleasant rivalries, to envyings, enmities, jealousies and hates.
6. It develops and fosters selfishness and pride, never agreeable or desirable in social life.
7. It ignores truth and justice in its assumption of equalities, where, by God's own fiat, equalities do not exist.

The subject of Principal Cavert's paper was discussed by Dr. B. N. Martin, Presidents Raymond and Anderson, Prof. D. S. Martin and Principals Bradley and Curtiss.

Professor Martin observed that the paper just read was original and valuable, and called up many important questions. Without adopting all the views presented in it, there were many of much importance. For himself, and for the institution with which he was connected, he could say that an experience of some years in a free use of the prize system had impressed the faculty with a general distrust of it. We have found that it practically discourages the great body of students. They cannot compete for prizes with the few who are favored, by high adaptation or by peculiar culture in certain departments, and, therefore, they quietly sink down into a contented obscurity. Moreover, those who are thus favored by happy adaptations are tempted to neglect their general culture, and seek eminence in some specific department. Prizes had, within his knowledge, been bestowed upon students highly developed in a particular direction, but unworthy of being recognized as our most meritorious pupils. For these and similar reasons, the whole prize system, with one or two exceptions, had been abandoned in the University of the City of New York, and the funds appropriated to it had been devoted to fellowships, given to those students who had shown the most satisfactory diligence and success in their general studies.

Dr. Anderson, of Rochester University, remarked that the difficulties which Dr. Martin suggested, arising from the neglect of the curriculum generally in order to study for prizes, might be obviated by providing that no student whose standing in all the studies of the college or academy course is not exceptionally high, should be permitted to enter into competition for prizes at all. He remarked that in the institution with which he is connected this method had been practiced with success.

Principal Bradley, of the Albany High School, said that while he concurred in much which was contained in the last paper, he thought it was open to one very serious criticism, in that it offered no substitute for the prizes and medals to which objection was made. Now it is impossible for men to act without motives. Place great motives before them and they will achieve wonders; withdraw those motives and their efforts will cease. How illogical, then, to expect the best results in school work and yet deprive the pupil of all such motives as are held out to the man in active life. A paper of the character of the one just read should propose some substitute for the prizes objected to. He rose to suggest a mode of arousing and stimulating ambition in school which he had found very effective and satisfactory. Let each recitation and other school exercise be marked on a uniform scale, and let these marks be averaged and published once a term or once a year, ranking the various classes from highest to lowest, in the order of their merit, as shown by the general average. Such a method stimulates not only the best, but every scholar in the class.

President Raymond, of Vassar College, called attention to the practical difficulty in the application of these different theories, growing out of the wide variety of character with which the college or the academy has to deal. There will be no difference of opinion as to the theoretical superiority of the motives which have been emphasized in the paper just read — the sense of duty, the excellence of knowledge, and the natural rewards that lie along the course of a noble life, here and hereafter. But the difficulty is to make this motive practically effective on the undeveloped youth, whom it is our business to take where they are and to train them up to what they ought to be.

In almost every school of one or more hundred boys and young men, you will find almost every grade of moral intelligence and sensibility, from the highest to the lowest; and a great variety of motives must be used in order to reach all. The true rule for the educator is to make use of every legitimate motive, according to the necessity of the individual cases, but always in such a way that the lower shall not interfere with the action of the higher, and especially that the moral progress and growth of the school shall not be arrested and held back. For this is a matter of growth in schools, as in communities. Time was, when in all the great schools of Christendom the birch rod and the *school horse* on which the culprit was straddled for the more convenient application of what was then thought to be the *fundamental* motive, were necessary articles of school furniture. And there are still boys in school so low in organization or development as to need this motive in order to wake up higher ones. But schools are fast growing away from the use of the rod, because the *general* moral feeling in our boys and young men has been raised to such a point as to make it needless and hurtful to recognize it as a desirable school motive. Appeals to emulation and the love

of approbation and distinction by prizes, rolls of honor, etc., are far higher, but confessedly not the highest. These are natural feelings and may co-operate with higher, and be used to lead the young up to higher. Employ them for that purpose, but at the same time teach the young aspirant that there are nobler affections, and that it is nobler to be governed by them. Maintain your systems of competition for prizes and honor, but so administer them as to educate your pupils and your schools out of them. The speaker thought that the moral sense of our community and of our best schools and colleges is already considerably farther advanced than is generally suspected, and that it is often the authority of the college which continues to rely on the prize system, more than any prevailing respect among the students themselves, for the system which sustains and gives it effect.

The speaker referred to some passages in his own experience, in the Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, as confirming this conviction.

Prof. D. S. Martin said that he would simply add, that in the institution which he represented (Rutgers' Female College) there is no system of prizes, and he rejoiced that it is so. The difficulty arising from emulation and jealousy among students, and the almost impossibility of judging wisely and truly between competitors, render the whole system, in the opinion of the speaker, and he believed he could witness for his colleagues, unhappy and undesirable. Furthermore, it is entirely needless. All students who cannot be reached by the sense of duty and of honor, by pride of scholarship and by conscience, simply drop out of Rutgers' college and do not go on and graduate. Those who do thus pass through the course, pass through it usually with diligence and honor, and graduate with high standing. He had no question, that if the marking system and the honors at commencement, which are still retained in the college, were wholly done away, the result would be quite unchanged. He could not speak regarding young pupils and academies, but such was his firm conviction from all his own experience.

Dr. Anderson further remarked that many who deprecate emulation in schools forget that man has been created with susceptibility to various kinds and gradations of motive. It does not follow because a man is desirous of office or army promotion, that he is therefore exclusively selfish or unpatriotic. These motives act like parallel forces in physics, tending in the same direction. A man may be ambitious in the good sense and conscientious at the same time. God did not make a mistake in the creation and constitution of man. Prizes in schools are simply an application of the law of natural selection which prevails throughout human society. Society gives for success in all departments of life. An army in which no prizes in the way of promotion for distinguished ability or bravery, would be demoralized at once. Every French soldier under the old Empire was said to carry a marshal's baton in his knapsack. The possibility of attaining the prize of promotion made every soldier a hero, developed his intelligence and strengthened his character. The system has since been introduced into almost all the armies of the civilized world. Under proper care and supervision prizes may be made healthful and are consistent with the growth of moral character.

Principal Curtiss of Sodus Academy, said he believed that in every employment of life, prizes favorably promote the interests involved.

In county fairs, in all business of peace or war, there are inducements to honorable exertion by way of prizes or titles or honor. Promotion in the army makes many a man a renowned hero who otherwise would be a coward or deserter. In school many a student becomes eminent who would fritter away his whole time in idleness, were it not for the hope of public distinction. The fact that teachers could not discriminate in giving prizes is a fault in teachers, not in a system. Even the Regents foster the prize system by selecting one or more of the most worthy teachers in the State and conferring the degree, at each Convocation, of Ph. D. Do every thing honorable to awaken and promote *emulation*, but do not allow sluggishness and stolid indolence.

A paper on the "Endowment of Higher Institutions for Education of Women," by Prof. Henry J. Van Lennep, D. D., of Ingham University, was read by Mrs. Van Lennep.

The following is an abstract of Dr. Van Lennep's paper:

The condition of woman is a correct criterion of civilization; the provision we make for her education, and particularly the fact that many of our higher schools are open to her, entitle us to a high place among the nations. But the higher education of women, and all which is usually imparted after the age of fifteen, cannot advantageously be carried on in connection with the other sex. Public sentiment is opposed to it; only 2,000 pupils attend the higher mixed schools, while 16,000 prefer the more expensive education which excludes the other sex. This accounts for the fact that the number of women who enjoy the benefit of a higher education bears no adequate proportion to that of the men. The latter exclusively possess 587 institutions and have 51,700 students, while the women have 18,465 pupils in all, and possess but 244 schools. After deducting professional schools, the capital invested in men's schools is forty millions against eleven millions in the girl's schools; while the former had in 1874 an income of three millions and the latter of thirty-three thousand, or as eighty-two to one! The evils of this state of things are very great; they can be removed only by a suitable endowment of the schools for women, and this depends upon the good will of the public.

Dr. Joseph E. King, of Fort Edward, desired to emphasize one thought of the paper, viz., its painfully just arraignment of our time, in its almost total neglect to provide higher education, and make it accessible to precisely that class of young women who most desire it, deserve it, and need it, the daughters of clergymen, of teachers, and of other professional and educated men with slender incomes.

The fault of the time is, not that they who are able to pay for it, the prosperous merchant, the speculator, and the man of inherited wealth, cannot procure the highest education for their daughters, if they shall happen to desire it; but that, while the great colleges of New York and New England, by virtue of special endowments, scholarships and prizes, open their doors to the moneyless young man who knocks thereat, provided only he has manly ambition and manly character, the moneyless young woman, however ambitious or gifted, is practically excluded.

Not a few of the gentlemen sitting in this Convocation, gentlemen now recognized as successful and influential educators themselves, know by experience that the best education our colleges afford *can be com-*

manded by resolute young men; what with the liberal provisions of the colleges, the superior compensation allowed for the services of male teachers in the winter schools, and the opportunities open to young men for remunerative occupations in the summer vacations.

The problem, how an energetic young man without means can be educated, has often been successfully solved, and that too without humbling his manhood or any service of "dust and ashes." What true statesmanship is now loudly called upon to provide is, that at least corresponding advantages and opportunities should be provided for young women. Let the attention of generous minded men of wealth be called to this need, and let them be urged to supply it.

The question of co-education, or education apart, so temperately discussed by the paper, may be safely left to settle itself by the test of experience.

President Cowles, of the Elmira Female College, said: Mr. Chancellor, I have the honor to represent the first fully chartered female college in this country. Twenty-one years ago the Legislature gave a charter to the Elmira Female College, but with great hesitation and in the face of strong prejudice and some ridicule. It was supposed by some that it was a new department in the interest of social radicalism and women's rights. Yet there were some strong friends who gave the new movement their fullest and strongest sympathy. But we met this great difficulty. A female college was at once brought into somewhat humiliating contrast with older and richer institutions which had a growth of several generations. Colleges a hundred years ago were alike comparatively feeble. They took many years to gain a respectable standing. They were long in coming up to the resources and literary rank of several of our present female colleges, but now these colleges for women are in contrast with colossal institutions which have forgotten their own infancy.

This vast disparity of resources so forcibly presented in the paper we have just heard, is, I believe, a profound mistake, and one fraught with great danger for the future. We must not allow, in the education of society, one sex to get too far away from the other. It will be a sad misfortune to allow educated men to lose respect for the education of women. The college for women should be so noble and strong, so thorough and so ample in means that it shall not be sneered at as if it is only a make believe and feeble imitation of a college. It may seem enthusiastic or ultra, yet it is my sober conviction that it would be far better for society, better for the intellectual growth of the race, better for perpetuity and increase of religious institutions, if this disparity of endowments for the sexes were reversed. Educated mothers will do more for the filling of our male colleges with well prepared students than all the museums and libraries and endowments put together. The colleges for women in this State are still in their infancy, except Vassar, which sprung, like Minerva, from the head of Jove, full armed and equipped for her mission. They well deserve the attention of generous men and especially generous women to give them the means which shall give them a full unquestionable rank by the side of our highest and best colleges.

Vice-President Russel, of Cornell University, expressed his entire sympathy with the spirit of the paper. When we consider that the

girls who are asking for a higher education are to be the mothers of the men who are to carry on our nation and our civilization, the whole question is decided. It is too late now to discuss the right of woman to the best education. If any are to be educated it should be those who are to transmit their intellectuality and improvability to the next generation. But when there are so many institutions of higher education already existing, why demand more? When there are abundant buildings and apparatus and libraries already, why not use them? Because there are not in them provisions for the branches which women wish to follow. Then give to these existing colleges the money which new buildings and duplicate apparatus and duplicate libraries would require and enable these institutions to add to the number of their professors and of the branches of learning, and to multiply the variety of studies which women find necessary. The fact that branches usually pursued by men only are there taught is certainly no objection. Some women even may occasionally need *them*. At Cornell there are two ladies from different parts of the State who are studying architecture. Another lady, daughter of a man who has a farm of 250 acres, is studying agriculture, because she knows that one day she may have to manage that farm. Is there any possible motive of delicacy or taste or common sense which should forbid these women learning the things which they wish to use in their future support? The fact that students in civil engineering and in mechanic arts pursue the highest mathematics, presents no objection to women who desire the highest mathematical education. They attend the professor. What the other members of the class are doing is immaterial. The fact that men are provided for does not compel women to follow those studies unless they wish to do so, and certainly is no reason for keeping them out of the institution. Only strengthen the existing colleges and enable them to add such a variety of studies that the taste and ability and desires of all may be met, and the advantages of the higher education will be open to those who are asking for it.

President Raymond said he was not surprised that the able representative of *Cornell* discerning clearly the claims of women to the amplest provisions for higher education, could see no necessity for making such provisions any where else than at *Ithaca*. But some of us are more favorably situated for answering his question on that point. Without expressing any opinion of his own on the comparative advantages of the mixed and the separate system for the higher education of women, President Raymond referred to the existence of a wide-spread preference in the community — call it prejudice, if you please, it has none the less a controlling power over a multitude of minds — in favor of institutions for young women where they could be surrounded by conditions and placed upon curricula specifically adapted to their wants, and provided with those home-like protections and comforts which would reconcile parents and friends to their entering upon protracted courses of study. Whether we like it or not, these feelings exist and are likely to exist for a long time to come, necessitating the maintenance of such colleges as Elmira, Vassar and Smith, and making their adequate endowment a matter of public interest. Some of us believe, quite irrespective of our theoretical opinions on co-education, that the educational wants of young women are, for the present at least, likely to be better appre-

ciated and cared for in such institutions, than in colleges and universities founded, officered and managed entirely by men and for men, and where the girls are merely let in at a side door and permitted to sit down at the end of the bench and pick up the crumbs that fall from their brothers' table.

Speaking for Vassar, President Raymond said *Amen* to all that had been urged in behalf of "Scholarships for poor girls," and endowments in any form whatever and in any place, which would aid to bring the means of the highest possible culture within the reach of every young woman in the land, who had brains to be cultivated and a desire to educate them for the service of science and the good of men. He believed this to be an educational desideratum, second to none in importance at the present moment.

Professor Selah Howell, A. M., of the Christian Biblical Institute, at Stanfordville, Dutchess county, read a paper on "History in its Relations to Practical Life."

The paper set forth :

1. The importance of wise preparations for the grave duties of life.
2. The fact that in our hurry we have forgotten that, though zeal is commendable, zeal tempered by wisdom is safer.
3. The practical man has usurped the place of the thinker.
4. History, eminently a practical subject, is nevertheless practically ignored.
5. The time is not far off when it (history) will occupy much of the time now given to chemistry and physics.
6. America cannot afford to eschew the world's history. She has too much at stake.
7. Practically speaking, the study of history is the study of human nature.
8. The universality of the necessity for historical study from the very nature and scope of the subject.
9. History shows us plainly that any growth other than symmetrical growth is dangerous.
10. History helps us to know ourselves. It induces modesty. It connects with all humanity. It centralizes the great truth: "There is a Divinity that shapes our ends, rough hew them as we will."

Professor Daniel S. Martin, of Rutgers Female College, observed that he sympathized strongly with the paper just read in many of its aspects, and he had no question that all present would recognize the claim of history to a very high and important place in college education. But there is one point in the paper to which he wished to call attention, viz., the claim made for history that it has a great moral effect and leads men to see God. His own views had long since led him to believe that no intellectual study merely, has, of necessity, any moral influence. The serious and theistic mind certainly finds history to be—as the late Professor Dean of Albany, called it—"God teaching by example." But in the hands of such writers as Mr. Buckle or the eminent author of the work on the "Intellectual Development of Europe," this great idea of mind, plan and purpose, running through all history, is made to disappear wholly and give place to a mere succession of natural laws and circumstances. The same claim is often made for

physical sciences, that we pass thereby "from nature up to nature's God;" but we well know that it is not so in many cases, that science often becomes wholly materialistic and godless. Any study will usually make a man what he is disposed to be. He will see God if he is of a serious and earnest mind, in either history or science; if he is otherwise disposed, he can shut his mind to the great Divine idea in any aspect or department. In the hands of a devout and discerning instructor, however, history is a grand means of stimulating the mind and revealing God in the affairs of man.

The subject was further briefly discussed by Regent Hale and Principal White.

Prof. C. C. Shackford, A. M., of Cornell University, read a paper on "Comparative Literature." The following paragraphs illustrate the character of the paper:

The critical spirit of our day demands the application of the scientific method to literature. General literature is too often vaguely treated; but without this general knowledge of the best thought of all times, literary criticism is inadequate. The only adequate method of treating it is the comparative. The literary productions of all ages can be classed, brought into comparison, and shown to be structurally related.

The comparative treatment traces the analogies that exist between the literary productions of remotest nations and most distant eras, the peculiarities which distinguish each as belonging to a particular period of social and mental development, with the variations in type, and the exceptional peculiarities of climate, race and national institutions. These can all be brought into different groups, be affiliated and their relations shown to the great principles of art embodied in them. No work is isolated or independent.

Illustrations were given from epic and dramatic poetry of principles that apply equally well to all kinds of poetry and prose. Literature is an evolution of germs that can be followed out by the comparative method that is so successful in anatomy, zoology and philology. To consider each nation separately is too tedious and barren; to consider general principles merely, is to lose one's self in abstractions. Each form can be considered in its best examples.

When studied in this way, literature becomes truly humanizing. It is catholic and universal. We can attain in this way a knowledge of the primal ideas embodied in any form. Distinctions of ancient and modern, classical and romantic, disappear. Bibliography is not literature, and a history of authors is not a vital acquaintance with literary history. A true criticism places the mind in the position of a contemporary, with the wider experience given by the ages, and gives a better appreciation of all that has been the choicest heritage of humanity.

Principal Geo. R. Cutting, A. M., of Waterville Union School, read a brief paper entitled "Inter-Academic Competitive Examinations."

This paper called out an animated discussion on the part of the Chair (Regent Hale), Drs. Balcam and King, President Raymond, and Principals Cavert, Rogers and Bradley.

Principal Rogers said: I fully agree with the general principles discussed in the paper now before the Convocation, and fully believe that

competitive examinations in our academies would be productive of good results. I do not agree with the sentiments of Principal Cavert, that specialties in study should, to any great extent, be tolerated. I deem it injurious to the student, and apt to make them men of one idea. We have already too many *hobby riders*. So far as the student receives his intellectual training in our academies, it should be of such a nature as to develop all his mental faculties. Such examinations would make the diplomas given at graduation of equal value; whereas now a diploma given by one academy is of far more value than those given by one where the drill is not so thorough. Higher examinations controlled by the Regents would make scholars stronger and do away with favoritism.

Dr. Balcam offered the following resolution, which was laid over for consideration :

Resolved, That the Regents of the University be requested by this Convocation to institute an examination in advanced studies for academic departments, and to issue certificates to students passing the same; and, if legal, to base the distribution of a portion of the Literature Fund upon the issuing of such certificates.

Chancellor Pruyn invited the Convocation to meet him at his house at the close of the evening session.

AFTERNOON SESSION — 3.30 O'CLOCK.

A paper on "Physical Culture in Colleges," by Captain Thomas Ward, U. S. A., of Union University, was read in his behalf by Dr. Balcam, of Oswego.

President Martin B. Anderson, LL.D., of the University of Rochester, read a paper on "The Voluntary System in University Education."

Vice-President Russel, of Cornell University, replied to the paper which he considered an able, conscientious and manly statement of one side of the question. If what he believed to be the truth could not stand attacks made in that spirit, it ought to be given up, and therefore he should always welcome them. The duty of a community, organized as a State, was, he thought, to provide means of educating its members to the ability of developing themselves and becoming useful members of society, happy in the enjoyment of a fair share of the gifts of the Creator. Whatever was necessary to be taught toward that end, the State had a right to provide the means of teaching. This would embrace the truths of science, the facts of material nature, and the principles which should regulate the relations of men towards one another. He did not know why the State had not the right to provide means of teaching even religion. Experience, however, had shown that the diversities of religious beliefs engendered so much jealousy, narrowness and bigotry that more harm than good had resulted from the attempt. Religion, too, was so nearly allied to conscience, and it was so important that conscience should be left free, that, whatever the right might be, history had shown that such education by the State was inexpedient. He denied that the State could not provide the means of teaching science, because the investigations of science brought up the question of God. If it was the interest of the State that its citizens, in order to improve their manu-

factures, should know the principles of chemistry, the State could not be debarred that right because the analysis of crystals or the laws of combination pointed to a universal intelligence. Nor if navigation was important to a State, was it any reason for not giving its people the means of knowing astronomy that the system of stars moved by rules which led to the belief in an overruling intelligence. The State should provide the machinery and the teachers necessary to the education without consideration of religious bearings. The advantage of centralization in education is that it saves waste. If the apparatus and the libraries of the several colleges in New York could be replaced by one grand library sufficient for all students on all subjects, and one large collection of apparatus sufficient for every investigation, there would be no need of sending our young people to other States or beyond the Atlantic for an education. The fact now is, that out of the city of New York there is not a single collection of apparatus sufficient for instruction in physics, only a telescope in one college, some electrical machinery in others, an air-pump and a few such articles in other colleges, and nowhere the means with which any professor could properly teach physical science. The objection to sectarianism is not that it uses its means to teach sectarian views of religion, but that it interferes with secular education and cuts up and divides means which would be more efficient if put together. He did not advocate one great center of education, nothing was further from his thoughts, but he thought that the different States should provide each for its own people a center of knowledge and education within its own boundaries, and make it a matter of State pride that its people could there get education on every subject without going abroad. The dangers of students being educated to believe in a Godless universe had been alluded to. If men would give the young the opportunities of studying science, and following the ways in which nature works, and of working themselves in the paths of that boundless intelligence which permeates every movement, from that of the countless systems of stars to that of the minute cell and germ, they might cease from any alarm about the growing belief in a Godless universe.

Prof. B. N. Martin observed that the confidence expressed by Vice-President Russel, that if students are led to discern the grand laws and facts of nature, they will infallibly rise to the conception of a ruling Intelligence and an infinite God, seems but imperfectly justified in view of the fact that the very grounds of atheism are now found by many of the most eminent students of nature in France and Germany in those laws themselves. Buchner, with his Matter and Force, is the very type of our modern atheistic philosophy, and the whole force of his views is derived from these physical laws. And yet the State college is not at liberty to teach the being of God and the immortality of the soul, but must only carry the pupil up to the point at which these great conclusions become dimly inferable, and then must stop, without drawing these vital inferences, or inculcating those great truths which the nature of the soul and the necessities of society equally and imperatively demand.

With regard to the policy of concentrating educational institutions, Prof. Martin thought that an important distinction was required between collegiate and professional institutions. The latter must concentrate themselves in the great centers. The law will naturally be taught where there are high courts and great cases and eminent lawyers; medicine must be studied in the great hospitals, and under the instruction of original and

highly cultivated practitioners. Nor is there any ill result from this concentration. Students so far advanced as to be capable of entering upon professional study will know where to go, and have the spirit of study already developed. Thenceforward they will find their way to the seats, though distant, of the advanced instruction which they need.

But with the college it is different. One of its most important influences is to carry the knowledge and the possibility of high education into every part of the State, that every child who grows up with talents worthy of cultivation may know the possibilities which exist for his development. Plant your colleges, then, in all parts of the State, that they may shed light around them, and impart their stimulus to our whole population. Without this diffusion the youth of remote districts would grow up without knowing what provision has been made for education, or feeling the stimulus to seek it. But now each one of our twenty-five colleges appeals to every aspiring youth around it. The promising pupil in a rural academy sees the college on the hill twenty miles away, and knows that it exists for just such youths as himself. Some early friend has gone there, he has attended its commencements, and the ambition for such culture spreads to every secluded hamlet and every farmer's home, till the whole population becomes pervaded with some love of learning. Then, too, the college—at first weak and meager—appeals to the local feeling for its support. It finds friends, patrons and benefactors till it stands, after a generation or two, endowed, enriched, and prepared to benefit future generations.

EVENING SESSION — 8 O'CLOCK.

Professor S. Edward Warren, A. M., formerly of the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, now of Newton, Mass., read a paper on "Technical Education."

After a brief introduction explaining that a subject to which general attention had been only quite recently drawn, should not be treated too dogmatically, the paper proceeded to discuss industrial drawing as a branch of education, under the following general heads: 1. *The principal kinds of schools*, general and special, and the former in two parallel lines, one predominantly *humanistic* as devoted to the study of man, the other predominantly *naturalistic* as devoted to the study of nature. 2. *The main divisions of drawing*, as fine art and industrial. Passing over the former, the latter exists in two broadly marked divisions, free-hand and instrumental, each with numerous sub-divisions and each having an equally wide and important demand. 3. *Various classes of pupils*, those destined to be farmers, merchants, mechanics and artisans, and candidates for higher scientific education. 4. *Questions and suggestions* relating to the study of drawing of various kinds by the various classes of pupils.

1. Which of all the pupils need drawing? Artisans and mechanics more than farmers and merchants, for which last two classes it may generally well be optional. 2. *How much drawing*. The elements for ordinary workmen and preparatory students; a full course for superintendents, foremen, draughtsmen and professional engineering and architectural students. 3. What kind of drawing? Mainly ornamental design, whether of solid forms as furniture and pottery, or of surface

decoration for artisans, and mainly instrumental drawing for mechanics distinctively so called. 4. How far industrial in public schools; and 5, where obtained? Very doubtful if it should be given in common schools and academies, further than to reveal the industrial talent therein existing, and to students who are preparing for higher institutions, of engineering, etc. Then the school training of artisan decorators, designers, would but be completed by continuous work in separate trade schools. 6. How many of the sub-divisions of all industrial drawing should be taught to each pupil? Generally and principally such only as he will use in his special trade. 7. Whence shall teachers be obtained? From schools of design, like the Cooper Institute and others, normal art schools and engineering schools; but as very highly important to a richly and healthily all-sided industrial art development of the whole nation, the more different and independent State systems the better, thus following nature in the variety and distribution of her works.

On motion of Dr. Welch, chairman of the executive committee, in view of the fact that Professor Warren is from a sister State, the thanks of the Convocation were presented for this valuable paper.

A historical sketch of the Troy Female Seminary, prepared by Mrs. J. H. Willard, for the centennial year, was read by J. H. Peck, Esq.

The Convocation then adjourned to 9.30 A. M., to-morrow, and the members repaired to the Chancellor's residence, pursuant to his invitation given at the morning session.

THIRD DAY.

CLOSING SESSION, 9.30 O'CLOCK.

Rev. Dr. Welch led the Convocation in the use of the Lord's Prayer.

Prof. Otis H. Robinson, A. M., of the University of Rochester, read a paper on "The Administration and Care of College Libraries."

A college library is a magnificent educational apparatus. Students should be educated in it to be intelligent readers. The importance of this is much greater now than when books were rare. The young graduate of to-day has to enter the list for intellectual leadership among men who are constant and careful readers. What, then, should the administration of a college library be?

1. As to its growth, classification and the facilities for making it accessible.

2. As to the nature and extent of the privileges to be granted to readers.

3. As to the instruction in its use to be given to students.

First. Its growth should be around the central ideas of the different departments of instruction, and its classification based upon that of the studies and lectures in the curriculum. There is no agreement among librarians as to cataloguing. The card system is coming rapidly into use. If it is to prevail, there should be co-operation in the making of cards. All might have better cards and have them printed at less expense than they can make them. There is now a great and needless

waste of energy in making them. All the valuable monographs of a library should be indexed. I have more indexed essays and other short articles in my library than volumes. These are of very great use in many ways.

Second. In giving privileges to readers, the highest working power of the library should be aimed at first, and secondly, its preservation. With the exception of rare and costly books, it is very easy to replace all that would be lost by the most liberal use, and to provide duplicates where such use requires them. By all means then let the students have the books to read in the freedom of their homes or rooms. Students should also be allowed, under proper regulations and restrictions, to go to the cases and take the books down, and so study the library as a whole. Stated times might be set for this privilege apart from the regular daily use of the library. Nothing encourages reading habits more than this; nothing conduces more to broad and self-reliant scholarship than the habit, made possible by this privilege, of investigating subjects independently in a large library, and yet it is a privilege not generally granted. Librarians have studied how to get books and preserve them more than how to *use* them. I do not write mere theory on this subject, but the result of more than ten years' experience.

Third. Students should be under the systematic instruction of a scholarly librarian in the formation of their habits of reading and investigation. A brief course of lectures might be given, to be followed by continued personal examination and instruction. Students should be taught how to learn about a book before reading it; how to put questions to a library and find their answers in all the different departments, and how to plan and pursue general courses of reading. If officers of instruction will do all this work, well; but where no one is personally responsible for it, it is very likely to be neglected. Give the librarian the responsibility of it, the credit of it and the pay for it; select him with reference to it as an educator, and much good will be done.

A paper on "The Teacher as a Citizen," was read by Jonathan Tenney, A. M., late Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Mr. Cavert said: The gentleman is clearly a native of New England, and asserts the New Englander's belief that Boston is the hub, and that everything revolves about New England. "Our New England fathers first established public free schools." Now it is high time that a protest be made against this claim of the "universal *guessing* nation." New England can show school legislation (according to White's History of Education in Massachusetts) dating 1636. New York can show school legislation (according to Pratt's Annals) dating 1629. New England shows no school previous to the date of its first legislation. New York shows the establishment of a free school in 1633 — a school still in existence in connection with the Collegiate Reformed Church of the city of New York. Free schools have been known in New York from its first foundation as a colony. The first permanent school law of the State, the law of 1812, was a free school law. Unfortunately the money provided was not sufficient to run the schools for the legal time, three months, and in 1814 we borrowed the rate-bill system from Connecticut. In 1849 we again passed a free school law, which was afterwards repealed from political considerations, and it was not till 1867 that all parties agreed to a free school law which we hope will be permanent. The free

school idea was not lost by the passage of the law of 1814, only held in abeyance. Free schools have been known in New York during its entire existence — State and colonial.

Principal Ezra B. Fancher, of Seneca Falls Academy, read a paper on "The Duties of the Teacher to Himself."

Prof. B. W. Putnam, of Boston, made a statement in regard to the collection of industrial drawing specimens at the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia.

The Chancellor stated that he regretted to announce the inability of Governor Seymour, by reason of illness, to complete the paper which he expected to read before the Convocation at this time, and also read an extract from a letter received by the Secretary from Governor Seymour in regard to the matter, in which he referred to his wish to bring out some points in the history of our State, which he thinks have been overlooked.

Whereupon, Dr. Wilson, of Cornell University, offered the following resolutions:

Resolved, That this Convocation, having heard the letter of Governor Seymour to Secretary Woolworth, express their deep regret at his inability to be present at this meeting; and the more so as we are thereby deprived of instructions and counsels on this occasion which could not have failed to prove very opportune and valuable, and which, as we believe, could scarcely have come from any one else.

Resolved, That we express our sympathy with Governor Seymour in his present illness, and hope and pray for his speedy restoration to health and the long continuance of his honorable and useful life.

The above resolutions were seconded by Dr. Welch, of Union University, with appropriate remarks.

The vote on the resolutions was then taken, all the members of the Convocation rising in their places, and they were unanimously adopted.

On the motion of Dr. Fisher, of the College of the City of New York, it was also

Resolved, That the Convocation request Governor Seymour, at his convenience, to complete the paper which he had thus intended to present, and deliver it to the Secretary, in order that it may be published with the proceedings of the Convocation.

Papers having also been expected from Professor Tayler Lewis and Chancellor Crosby, which they have not been able to furnish, a similar request to that made to Governor Seymour was adopted with regard to each of them.

A paper by Professor Isaac H. Hall, Ph. D., of the Protestant College at Beirut, Syria, on "Cypriote Antiquities and Inscriptions," was read by title and ordered printed as part of the Convocation proceedings.

A number of histories of literary institutions throughout the State, prepared at the suggestion of the Executive Committee, for this Centen-

nial year, were presented, and, on motion of Dr. Wilson, the Convocation recommended that these histories be printed in connection with the proceedings of this Convocation.

Principal Thompson moved that the catalogue for the current year, with any historical matter annexed, be solicited from each institution represented in the Convocation, for preservation among the valuable papers at the office of the Regents, which motion was adopted.

Under the head of University Necrology, Secretary Woolworth announced the decease of the following members of the Convocation during the past year:

Regents Prosper M. Wetmore, Wm. H. Goodwin and Horatio G. Warner; Trustees Ira Harris and John J. Knox; Prof. James H. Armsby and Principal Bernice D. Ames. Other names may be added to this list, for the permanent records of the Convocation.

On motion of President Raymond,

Resolved, That a committee be appointed to consider the subject of cataloguing and indexing college and school libraries, and, if found feasible, to report some plan of co-operation, with a view to secure the best results for all, at the least expense.

The committee, as subsequently appointed, consists of the following members: Prof. Otis H. Robinson, Rochester University; Prof. Willard Fiske, Cornell University; Prof. Truman J. Backus, Vassar College; Dr. Charles W. Bennett, Syracuse University; Dr. Henry A. Homes, State Library.

The Chancellor was authorized to appoint the executive committee for the ensuing year.

Instructor McAfee called up the resolution introduced yesterday by Dr. Balcram, and moved an amendment, which was adopted. The resolution as amended, was adopted as follows:

Resolved, That the Regents of the University be requested by this Convocation to make out an appropriate course of advanced studies, and institute examinations for the academic departments, and to issue certificates to students passing the same, as soon as arrangements can be made for the purpose.

The Convocation then adjourned, and the benediction was pronounced by Rev. Dr. Potter, President of Union University.

REGISTERED MEMBERS OF THE CONVOCATION.

1876.

BOARD OF REGENTS.

JOHN V. L. PRUYN, LL. D., <i>Chancellor of the University</i>	Albany.
ERASTUS C. BENEDICT, LL. D., <i>Vice-Chancellor</i>	New York.
JOHN BIGELOW, <i>Secretary of State</i>	Albany.
ROBERT S. HALE, LL. D.	Elizabethtown.
ANSON J. UPSON, D. D.	Albany.
WILLIAM L. BOSTWICK.....	Ithaca.
SAMUEL B. WOOLWORTH, LL. D., <i>Secretary</i>	Albany.
DANIEL J. PRATT, Ph. D., <i>Assistant Secretary</i>	Albany.

COLLEGES, ETC.

Union College. — President Eliphalet N. Potter, D. D.; Professors Jonathan Pearson, Ransom B. Welch, D. D., LL. D., Wendell Lamoureux, Capt. Thomas Ward, U. S. A.; Trustee William F. Allen, LL. D.

Hamilton College. — Professor N. W. Goertner, D. D.

University of the City of New York. — Professor Benj. N. Martin, D. D., L. H. D.

St. John's College. — President F. W. Gockeln; Professor M. P. Costin.

University of Rochester. — President Martin B. Anderson, LL. D.; Professor Otis H. Robinson.

Elmira Female College. — President Augustus W. Cowles, D. D.

Ingham University. — Professor Henry J. Van Lennep, D. D.; Mrs. Van Lennep.

St. Stephen's College. — Warden Robert B. Fairbairn, D. D.

Vassar College. — President John H. Raymond, LL. D.

Manhattan College. — Brother Anthony, Director; Professor C. M. O'Leary, Ph. D.

Cornell University. — Vice-President Wm. C. Russel; Professors Wm. D. Wilson, D. D., LL. D., L. H. D.; C. C. Shackford.

College of the City of New York. — Professor Adolph Werner; Tutor Eustace W. Fisher.

Rutgers Female College. — Professor Daniel S. Martin.

Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. — Ex-Professor S. Edward Warren.

Christian Biblical Institute, Stanfordville. — Professor Selah Howell.

State Normal School (Albany). — Instructress Kate Stoneman.

New York State Library. — Librarians Henry A. Homes, LL. D., Stephen B. Griswold, George R. Howell.

New York State Museum of Natural History. — Entomologist J. A. Lintner.

American Geographical Society. — Vice-President Francis A. Stout; General Secretary James T. Gardner.

ACADEMIES, ETC.

Adelphi Academy. — Instructor F. W. Osborn.

Albany Female Academy. — Miss Louisa Ostrom, Principal.

Albany High School. — Principal John E. Bradley; Instructors Chas. W. Cole, O. D. Robinson, R. Prescott.

Albany Public Schools. — Principals Levi Cass, J. L. Bothwell.

Amsterdam Academy. — Principal W. W. Thompson; Instructor W. W. Dawley.

Angola Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal W. H. Benedict.

Bainbridge Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal A. G. Kilmer; Trustee J. D. Meacham.

Baldwinsville Free Academy. — Principal A. E. Lasher.

Canandaigua Academy. — Principal Noah T. Clarke, Ph. D.

Canastota Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal Aaron White.

Canisteo Academy. — Principal Wellington La Monte.

Claverack Academy and H. R. Institute. — Instructor Robert C. Flack.

Clinton Grammar School (Male Dept.) — Principal Isaac O. Best.

Cobleskill Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal R. P. Orr.

Corning Free Academy. — Principal Henry A. Balcum, Ph. D.

Dansville Seminary. — Principal S. H. Goodyear; Mrs. Goodyear.

Egberts High School and Cohoes Public Schools. — Superintendent Oliver W. Steves.

Fort Edward Collegiate Institute. — Principal Joseph E. King, D.D., Ph. D.

Fort Edward Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal Daniel C. Farr.

Fort Plain Seminary and Female Collegiate Institute. — Instructor A. L. McMillan.

Greene Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal E. W. Rogers.

Griffith Institute. — Rev. J. A. Wells, D. D.

Hartwick Seminary. — Principal James Pitcher; Mrs. Pitcher; Trustee Irving Magee, D. D.

Holland Patent Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal James H. Brinsmaid.

Hungerford Collegiate Institute. — Principal Albert B. Watkins, Ph. D.

- Johnstown Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal Wm. S. Snyder.
 Lawrenceville Academy. — Principal E. M. Sharon.
 Monticello Academy. — Principal Francis G. Snook.
 New Berlin Academy. — Principal James M. Sprague.
 Oswego Boys' English and Classical Institute. — Principal E. J. Hamilton, Ph. D.
 Peekskill Academy. — Principal Charles J. Wright.
 Pulaski Academy. — Principal S. Duffy.
 Sandy Hill Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal Wm. McLaren.
 Saratoga Springs Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Superintendent Levi S. Packard.
 Schoharie Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal Solomon Sias.
 Seneca Falls Free Academy. — Principal E. B. Fancher.
 Skaneateles Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal A. M. Wright.
 Sodus Academy. — Principal Elisha Curtiss.
 S. S. Seward Institute (Female Dept.) — Mrs. G. W. Seward, Principal.
 Washington Free Academy. — Principal J. A. McFarland; Trustee James Gibson.
 Waterford Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal E. E. Ashley.
 Watertown High School. — Principal W. K. Wickes.
 Waterville Union School (Acad. Dept.) — Principal Geo. R. Cutting.
 West Winfield Academy. — Principal A. K. Goodier.
 Woodhull Academy. — Principal Daniel H. Cobb.

John G. Lansing, Cairo, Egypt.
 Wm. H. Whitney, New York city.
 George W. Hough, Albany.
 Miss M. M. Everts, Chicago, Ill.
 Rev. John James, D. D., Albany.
 Rev. Chas. Devol, M. D., Albany.
 C. W. Bardeen, *School Bulletin*.
 Geo. H. Quay, West Albany.
 L. D. Vose, School Commissioner, Tioga county.
 H. M. Paine, M. D., Albany.
 Rev. John A. Paine, Albany.
 Miss Emily Bailey, Albany.
 Jonathan Tenney, Albany.

A PLEA FOR THE STUDY OF LATIN.

By Rev. JOHN A. WELLS, A. M.,
Griffith Institute, Springville.

As in a river, there are eddying currents that seem to flow backward, so, in the general march of human progress, there are often found apparent backward movements, which, however, always come around and flow on with the stream.

Classical learning is in popular disrepute in the present generation, but not on account of any inherent unworthiness. It is, rather, in consequence of the unusual attraction of popular interest, at the present time, to the natural sciences, and also, of an undue prominence given to the idea of utility in education. The natural sciences are, indeed, of great value, and there can be no doubt that they will always occupy a prominent place in the pursuits of the scholar; yet, the special lead which they are now taking must be regarded as only temporary; and so of what is called a practical education. The abnormal importance given to it, at present, by the recent wonderful development of material resources and wealth, must, also, at some time, cease to call off the attention of the scholar from classical learning. A system of education which has for its object the development and the training of the mental faculties, the cultivation of true manliness, the storing of the mind with lofty and pure sentiments, and the disciplining of the man to carry himself agreeably to the manners of good society, must, by the necessities of human nature, always claim and receive a large share of the favor of an enlightened public opinion. This is what classical learning aims to do, and, as we shall endeavor to show, is adapted to accomplish. It must always hold a leading place in the march of human progress.

The Latin language, by its connections with other languages, both ancient and modern, is justly considered the gateway of all literature. Every consideration by which the value of literary studies is made to appear, also shows the value of a knowledge of the Latin language.

Perhaps, here we stand on debatable ground. There are those who, in their high estimate of the physical sciences, set a correspondingly low estimate upon literature. A sufficient reply to those who so underrate literature, may be given by simply showing some of the grounds of its importance.

Ideas and thoughts live forever. Each generation retains the sum and substance, of the intellectual life of its predecessors, to which it

adds somewhat from its own experience. The sum and essence of what one generation thinks becomes the sentiment and the assumed truth of the generation following, to which they add the results of their own thinking. The intelligence of the world to-day is not merely what the present generation has discovered; the conscious thinking of the present generation is the mere surface, the blustering foam, so to speak, on the surface of the solid universal intelligence of this day. *That* is rather the sum total of the intelligence of all past generations, successively transmitted and modified by the experiences of each age, and consisting, not, indeed, in specific facts, but in the sentiments and the assumed principles which form the basis of character and the ultimate reasons of action.

Literature is the recorded thought of any age or nation. The literature of any generation may be taken to represent the state of the intelligence of that generation. A people must have arrived at a tolerably high degree of intelligence to produce a literature. The writings of only leading minds, which still represent the current intelligence of the mass of the people, are preserved and transmitted to succeeding ages.

In Hebrew literature we have the best thoughts of the Hebrew nation for many centuries.

In the literature of Greece, and in that of Rome, we have the thoughts, the ideas and the result of all the experiences of those two enlightened peoples for many generations, handed down to us as they existed in their best form in their most enlightened minds. We have their knowledge of history, their researches in philosophy, their speculations in metaphysics and theology, the graces of their poetry and the glow of their eloquence. In the record of their thoughts we come into direct contact with their minds; we become their intimates; we learn their characters and we know what they knew. We thus, in literature, become acquainted with the state of the human mind in the successive stages of the development of the universal intelligence. In the literature of cotemporary civilized nations we appropriate their intellectual wealth to build up our own intelligence. In the literature of our own race we find expressed, in our own form of speech, all that our fathers knew, and the general thought of our cotemporaries, to which we add our own experience. Is not literature valuable, then, as a means for the building up of our intelligence, for the cultivation of our minds, and for the development of our manhood? If the object of education were nothing more than the discovery of facts and the laws of nature, or to teach us the art of accumulating wealth, then all this knowledge of the human mind in the various stages of the growth of universal intelligence might be treated lightly. But if the development of the highest manliness and fitting the youth to take an honorable

rank in society be understood to constitute the chief importance of an education, then literature is indispensable. No comparison need be made between it and physical science, to determine which has more of utility. We simply demand: Is not literature worthy of all the consideration which it is possible for us to give it?

The Latin language is the main entrance to the whole circle of literary studies.

The Greek language sustains such a relation to Latin that one who only intends to learn Greek would do well to learn Latin first.

The modern languages of southern Europe are all derived from Latin, and are so related to it that one who has well mastered Latin has already accomplished half of the task of learning several of them. Even German is much facilitated by a knowledge of Latin.

But, to us, a much more easily appreciated benefit of Latin is the aid which it gives in the full understanding of our own language.

The full measure of influence which the Latin language has exerted upon our own, as we now have it, has hardly been appreciated, even by the makers of our dictionaries. At least one-half of all the words of the English language in actual use are of Latin origin. The variety of opinions in reference to the extent of Latin influence in our language is wonderful. Most writers on the English language have seemed to follow a passion for exalting the importance of the Anglo-Saxon element. This has led them to undervalue the foreign element. Accordingly, Worcester quotes Henry Rogers as authority for fixing the number of English words at 38,000, of which 23,000 are Anglo-Saxon, leaving 15,000 for the total of all foreign words; yet he immediately afterwards admits that the proportion of foreign words may be much greater, even amounting to an equality with the Teutonic.

Webster states that words of foreign origin are a decided majority of the whole, and that four-fifths of the foreign words are of Latin origin.

Max Müller gives M. Thomerel credit for having ascertained, by counting all the words in two large dictionaries, that, of a total of 43,566 words, 29,853 came from classic sources, and 13,230 from Anglo-Saxon or Teutonic.

Shaw's English Literature gives the proportion of Anglo-Saxon words to those of classic origin as two to three, *i. e.*, two-fifths Anglo-Saxon and three-fifths classical.

Prof. Whitney states, that of the whole number of words in the English dictionary, two-sevenths only are of Anglo-Saxon origin and five-sevenths are classical. Here is, certainly, variety enough in the statements of learned men to drive any person, who is desirous of knowing what he knows with certainty, to search for himself. I regret

exceedingly that, since I engaged to prepare this paper, my time has been so much occupied with other duties, that I have not been able to complete the count and classification of words which I intended, and hope hereafter to accomplish ; yet I have proceeded far enough in the work to convince me that the truth is with those who have made the higher estimate of the influence of Latin in our language.

One reason for the disagreeing statements of different writers on English words is, that there is yet no generally received standard according to which words are counted and classified.

It is not settled what words are to be rejected as obsolete.

Compound words are usually counted as so many distinct words ; but it is obvious that by this process many words are counted several times over. Thus, for example, the word "horse," united with other words, forms sixty-eight compounds; counting it as a noun, and again as a verb, and the sixty-eight compounds, make a total of seventy words. Instead of seventy there is really but one. "Coal" is in like manner counted thirty times where it should be but once. "House," twenty-seven times; "head" thirty-eight, and "hand" fifty-three. The same word is generally counted as a noun and again as a verb, and often again as an adjective. Strictly, in all these cases, the word ought to be counted but once. On this plan the number and proportion of Anglo-Saxon words would be greatly reduced.

Of the words of classic origin, a very large proportion are Latin: Webster says four-fifths. It is at least that, and enough to give more than half of all our words as of Latin derivation. An accurate census would tend to increase rather than to diminish this Latin preponderance. Can the study of a language which makes us acquainted with so large an element of our native speech be regarded as of small importance?

But the strength of the argument, however, does not depend upon our knowing the exact proportion of the different elements of one language to each other. It is sufficient that we know that Latin enters very largely into the composition of English speech. That can be made to appear with convincing force by simply running over the columns of a dictionary for a few hours. Any person competent to distinguish words as to their origin may satisfy himself. In a late work, entitled "A Hand-book of Etymology," by William W. Smith, there is a list of derivative words arranged in classes under the heads of the language from which they are derived. In that list are given 658 Latin root words, from which are derived 3,910 English words. This list includes, of course, but a small part of the Latin words that have found their way into English and but a small part of the English words derived from Latin. But it is a convenient and impressive illustration of the import-

ance of studying Latin in order to our thoroughly understanding our own speech.

English words are modified by 100 prefixes, of which only thirteen are of Anglo-Saxon origin, nineteen are Greek, and sixty-eight are Latin.

Here are so many words, making up so large a part of our language, which are derived from words in the Latin language, and all retain more or less fully the distinct and well-defined meaning which they had in that language. It is difficult, if not impossible, to understand fully the meaning of these words without some knowledge of the meaning which they bore in their original usage. This difficulty may be best illustrated by a few examples. Take the word "puerile." A person who has no knowledge of the origin of the word, but who attempts to understand it from its English use, will be likely to take it to mean "trifling" or "inconsiderate." His idea is very imperfect as compared with that of him who knows that it is derived from "puer," a boy, and that, therefore, it must mean "boyish." That is a general idea, comprehending the several special ideas which are frequently expressed by it. Take the word "illustrate." A mere English scholar will hardly get beyond the special sense which is tied to that of an experiment or an example. The classical scholar, knowing that it is derived from "illustro," which means to shine upon, takes it in the general sense to make a subject clear to be understood by throwing light upon it. Understanding the general meaning of the word, he may, of course, apply it in particular senses as he chooses.

Take "amiable." The mere English scholar will be likely to understand it in the sense of "peaceable," or "kind." Here is a failure to comprehend the full meaning. It is only a partial and special sense. He who knows that it is from "amabilis," that which may be loved, gets a general idea, comprehending all of those particular qualities for which a person may be loved. So, in general, one who does not know the meaning of derivative words in their primitive usage, gains only narrow and special ideas from them, while a person who studies them etymologically comprehends their general signification.

The effect of this study goes farther than a mere knowledge of the meaning of words. By it one acquires general ideas, characteristic of the educated mind. He gains a breadth and comprehensiveness of thought which he who learns the English tongue only by observation of the special use of words, seldom, if ever, attains.

General ideas are indispensable to the furnishing of the educated intellect. Particular ideas, or thoughts all running to particulars, mark the childhood of the human mind; general ideas, comprehending many particulars, are indications of manhood. It is very difficult, not

to say impossible, for a person to learn the English language and understand it so as to use it in the large and comprehensive sense of an educated man, who does not know the meaning of the words he uses in the language from which they were taken. This fact is so obvious that any person who is skilled in the use of language can readily, by the words of any speaker or writer, distinguish whether he is a classical scholar or not. There is a breadth and comprehensiveness in the thoughts of him who has studied well the languages from which English words are derived, which sound manlike and mature in comparison with the seeming childishness of the thoughts of him who only knows his words in the particular senses in which he has heard them used.

Again, we should notice that our words of Latin origin mostly express ideas general and comprehensive, such as belong to the cultivated and reflecting mind, while those of Anglo-Saxon origin are definite and particular, such as are learned in childhood and are used mostly by uneducated persons. Anglo-Saxon words can be used correctly by uneducated people, but those of Latin origin require some cultivation of mind to use them without danger of impropriety. Any peasant or laborer who has never spent a term in school can use words coming from the old English vernacular with sufficient accuracy for his business of life. He can say farm, field, house, barn, plow, sow, run, walk, buy, sell, good, bad, night, day, hot, cold, etc.; all words that express simple, special ideas without danger of mistake. But it requires more mental cultivation to use words of Latin origin correctly. For example, the uneducated man will express a certain idea in his mind by the word "work," the man of more enlarged mind will express his thought by the word "labor," a Latin word of more extensive meaning. The use of such words as agriculture, economy, temperance, prudence, perseverance, parsimony, commerce, pecuniary, financial, scientific, literary, etc., mark a higher degree of cultivation and a greater breadth of mind than the use of common words of Anglo-Saxon origin.

The English mind before the Norman invasion was low and childish in its development. The effect of the conquest upon the nation was a higher cultivation and the possession of words capable of expressing a higher range of thought. But those more largely expressive words are almost all foreign and originally Latin. They are necessary to convey the ideas of the educated man. He must use them; but he cannot use them with safety unless he knows them in the original language. Hence, the importance to the educated man of a familiar acquaintance with the Latin tongue.

Another consideration showing the importance of Latin study is the large part of the words of that language that have found their way, in one form or another, into English. In the list of verbs which occur

most frequently in the student's course of reading, as given in Andrews & Stodard's Latin Grammar, there are 1,237 verbs, of which 889 are found in some form in English. Some of them enter into the composition of many English words. Any person who will take the pains to look along the columns of a Latin Dictionary will notice, perhaps with surprise, the large number of Latin words that have been transformed to English. I may be speaking within bounds, if I say three-fourths of all the radical words in the Latin language, excluding proper names, are, in some form, living speech in our native tongue. It is not a dead language. It lives to-day wherever there is an Englishman, or the descendant of an Englishman, to speak his native tongue. We have the very thoughts of the men of ancient Rome embalmed in the forms of our own speech. We are surely under some obligation to study well that venerable speech which has spared so large a portion of itself to make up our own.

The appeal to those who are ambitious of mastering the languages of modern Europe, may be made in a still louder tone. Italian, Spanish, and French are still more indebted to Latin than English is. It is safe to say four-fifths of the whole Latin language, exclusive of proper names, is, to-day, living speech in the languages of Southern Europe. He who would master them, or any of them, should master Latin first.

It deserves, also, to be mentioned, that the great number of technical, scientific and professional terms, now in use, derived from the Latin and Greek languages, renders it almost indispensable, that a person who would read intelligently on subjects involving the use of such terms, should understand those languages — especially Latin.

The mental discipline of studying a foreign language is of the most important kind. It is, in an eminent degree, humanizing. It brings the mind into direct contact with other minds, and enriches it with their thoughts. It is the study of human nature. It tends to cultivate those qualities of mind which are useful in the intercourse of man with man. It develops the powers of thought, imagination and expression. It trains a person to think correctly, to give expression to his ideas, as he thinks, and to remember what he thinks, what he says and how he says it. These are peculiarities of the educated mind. There is no language equal to the Latin for this purpose. I confidently appeal to any experienced teacher for a confirmation of this opinion.

The effect of the study of the Latin language on the characters of young people, and upon the prosperity of schools, is a good reason for promoting it. It is observed that whenever a young man has made some progress in Latin, a change appears in him. His boyish tastes begin to disappear; he outgrows his former ideas, and begins to look up with aspiration to a higher manhood.

Mankind are arranged in orders of different rank, which, though not distinguished by visible badges, are yet real and consciously felt, even when not acknowledged. There is an aristocracy of intellect, of taste and propriety, of refined and well ordered thought, into which aspiring youth always seeks admission. The position which the Latin language occupies in relation to all literary culture, is such that it is almost universally recognized as the vestibule through which aspiring youth must pass in gaining that distinction. When young people have learned enough of Latin to begin to enjoy it, they feel themselves drawn upwards as by a new inspiration towards this higher rank of mind. Accordingly, it is found that academies almost invariably sustain a rank and prosperity in keeping with the attention which they give to Latin. This is what our colleges and universities need. Classical schools of preparation are the feeders on which their life depends. When the youth begins to feel the inspiration which classic study gives him, he looks forward to the college. If our youth were rightly directed in this course, our colleges would have no lack of students, and society would be filled with educated men.

PRIZES IN SCHOOLS, AS USUALLY DISTRIBUTED.

By Principal MICHAEL P. CAVEET, A. M.,
Rhinebeck Union School.

MR. CHANCELLOR, AND GENTLEMEN OF THE CONVOCATION. — Your speaker is fully aware that there are at least two opinions on the subject of giving prizes in schools, and that each has its advocates. He also has some appreciation of the difficulties by which the discussion of the subject is surrounded. That both parties are right is not very probable. Much of the difficulty, doubtless, lies in confounding one thing with another; in assuming analogies where none exist; and in making no distinction between emulation and selfish ambition; between a system of *rewards* and a system of *prizes*. We are to discuss "Prizes, as usually distributed." How, then, is the distribution usually made? Why, generally to him who shall exhibit the highest grade of scholarship in one or more departments of learning, or to him whose conduct shall be least exceptional, something which, above everybody else, he may carry off as a prize; and not to *all who shall acquit themselves well*, a reward.

To this practice there are many and grave objections. And yet we find men of honesty, of learning and of talent, who think the practice commendable and defensible.

For the purpose of gathering the general opinion of the schools, and also in hopes of obtaining the arguments especially of those favoring prizes, the following circular was sent to forty colleges and universities in twenty-seven other States, and to all the colleges and universities and forty of the academies in our own State, and to six theological seminaries in our own and other States:

CIRCULAR TO OFFICERS OF COLLEGES, ACADEMIES AND OTHER SCHOOLS.

RHINEBECK, N. Y., May 6, 1876.

SIR. — It is proposed to canvass to some extent, at the next meeting of the Convocation of the University of the State of New York, the *practice of giving prizes* in our schools. To do this intelligently, we ask for any facts or experience you may have, and be disposed to give, or any opinion for or against such practice which you may have formed from observation. We propose to use what we thus obtain, if at all, in such way that the name of no person or school shall be mentioned, or be so alluded to as to be identified, unless permission so to do is first obtained. Whether

you write a letter or not, will you please supply answers to the following questions, and return the slip containing them to

Respectfully yours.

M. P. CAVERT.

1. What is the money value of all the prizes that may be given in your institution in a single year?.....
2. Do the majority in any class strive to gain the prize?.....
3. Whatever the number at the beginning, how much does that number diminish, as the time for awarding the prize approaches?.....
4. Are students apt to neglect one study in order that they may gain a prize in another?.....
5. Are jealousies and animosities, and charges of unfairness and injustice, apt to grow out of these contests?.....
6. Do those who win the prizes, as a rule, afterwards distinguish themselves in those particular departments in which their prizes were won?....
7. Do they distinguish themselves in other departments, and in practical life, above the majority of their fellows?
8. Weighing all the pros and cons, would you advise the founding of prizes in schools where they do not exist?
9. Would a general statute authorizing a change of the John Doe Medal or Prize endowment to the John Doe Library endowment be desirable?... ..

(Signed)

I give a few of the answers by number, premising that questions one and nine were submitted only to the New York schools, and where they have answered the first question, as the amount would be likely to identify the school, I do not use it.

2. Never.
3. We do not require announcement in advance; cannot answer.
4. We think so.
5. We have observed nothing of this.
6. So far as our observation goes they do.
7. We are not prepared to answer this question. As to college it is sometimes so and sometimes not so; as to practical life we as yet know too little.
8. On this point the opinions of our faculty are divided. They want to agree in favoring prizes for *general* merit — not for special.
9. To authorize? Yes. To act on the authority we should make dependent on the lessons of experience.

.....
President.... College.

2. No.
3. About one-half.
4. Yes.
5. Not when judiciously managed.
6. Very few. The effort, when long continued, induces by reaction dislike for the special study.
7. No. The laurels of youth often fade before noon.
8. Not for proficiency in scholarship. Prizes for excellency in composition, declamation, or any important exercise not requiring protracted

labor in preparation, may encourage healthful interest and not impair general scholarship.

.....
Chancellor University of.....

2. No; only an insignificant minority.
3. I do not know; the number giving up is not reported.
4. Yes, sometimes.
5. No, not here.
6. There is no rule. A large proportion of those who have here written prize English essays have become professional men, and a fair proportion of these have been distinguished.
7. The proportion of essayists who have distinguished themselves is much larger than the proportion of the whole number. This fact, however, only proves that the better scholars wrote for the prizes.
8. I should prefer to use the money to pay for teaching.

.....
President.... University.

2. No, not one in ten making an effort.
3. The number always runs down to two or three after the first month.
4. Yes.
5. Yes, invariably.
6. Not as a rule.
7. No.
8. Never; and I would abolish them where they do exist. The whole system is wrong in principle and pernicious in practice.

HENRY H. TUCKER,
Chancellor of the University of Georgia.

At college the circular was "referred to the treasurer and librarian," with instructions, who gave the following answers and note:

2. No.
3. Cannot say.
4. I think they do.
5. I have not observed any.
6. I have no knowledge that they do.
7. I have not observed it.
8. I would advise the founding of prizes for *progress*.
9. Yes, if said prize were given for the *best performance* only.

.... COLLEGE, June 5, 1876.

DEAR SIR. — After some delay I send back answers to your questions according to my knowledge. I do not think prizes for the *best scholarship*, or for *best essays*, etc., are advisable. What we need is a prize which will reach the poorest student — a prize for the greatest progress in a given time. This would be competed for by the *whole* class, and not by half a dozen of the best scholars, as now.

Yours, etc.

2. Rarely ; sometimes.
3. Is apt to diminish.
4. Yes.
5. Affirmative of and to such an extent as to make the system an evil.
6. Not according to the observation of the faculty.
7. Otherwise, there are indications of deterioration.
8. Formerly affirmative of, but observation has led me to a preponderating judgment against them, both on moral and physical grounds.

(Signed)
Chancellor University of

This was accompanied by the following note :

May 29, 1876.

DEAR SIR. — I have submitted your inquiries to our faculty, and the answers are in accordance with their unanimous judgment. Personally, I have been favorable to the prize system, but observation, specially of some pupils, in whose education I have been interested, has led me to fear it, especially in the case of persons of delicate organization. • Indeed I would not dare, for any consideration, to subject some students to the excitement and strain of competition for a prize. I am also led to doubt the efficiency of the system for the purpose for which it is designed. Those who need stimulants do not find them in the prize, but rather are repelled from study by the disgust of conscious inability to compete successfully, while those who do not need stimulation are injuriously incited.

.....
Chancellor University of

Sixty-one answers were returned from our own and fifteen other States. Several of these professed to have no experience, and hence are not included in the general summary, which, for the sake of brevity, is made by reference to the question as indicated on the circular.

2. Seventeen colleges and eight academies answer, No. Two colleges and eight academies answer, Yes.

3. How much the number diminishes is not stated definitely, but a large majority report a considerable decrease.

4. Eleven of the colleges and nine of the academies answer, Yes. Seven of the colleges and ten academies answer, No.

5. Ten colleges and eleven academies answer, Yes. Eight colleges and eight academies answer, No.

6. Ten colleges and nine academies answer, No. Five colleges and nine academies answer, Yes.

7. Eleven colleges and nine academies answer, No. Five colleges and nine academies answer, Yes.

8. Twenty-three colleges and thirteen academies answer, No. Six colleges and nine academies answer, Yes.

9. Eight New York colleges and eight academies answer, Yes. One college and four academies answer, No.

The test questions are really 8 and 9, and the answers show the actual state of sentiment as nearly as any thing we can obtain.

Twenty-three colleges would not advise the providing of prizes, against six that would so advise. Among these are those that would found prizes for writing and speaking only, to which, with all due deference, the main objections to prizes apply in full force, and especially to those given for speaking. Of the six theological seminaries, two have had experience in giving prizes for best scholarship in particular departments. One of these, giving two annual prizes of thirty dollars each, abolished them "as an evil." The other still maintains its faith in the value of the pecuniary prize.

One school sends a list of its prize scholars from 1853 to 1875, inclusive, containing thirty-three names, with the names of those who have acquired distinction marked, of whom there are five—a number not particularly flattering to prize scholars.

I give the following letters, received in answer to this year's circular; also three letters in *advocacy* of the prize system, received and used on a former occasion, because I have nothing newer in that direction to offer; and I shall, also, with some slight variation, use the same arguments then employed:

.....UNIVERSITY OF....., May 22, 1876.

DEAR SIR.—I have observed the operation of "prizes" on young men in academies and colleges for twenty-five years, and have learned thereby to judge them decidedly harmful on the whole. I have known several young men nearly ruined through success in a prize contest. Their heads were turned; and they ever after supposed themselves superior to others without the need of preparation. I look upon the whole scheme as false in principle and harmful in practice; and have so discouraged it in this college that for ten years the students have voluntarily declined to compete for the small prizes offered.

.....
President of..... University.

.....UNIVERSITY, May 23, 1876.

DEAR SIR.—Your circular has been in my possession several days awaiting an answer. Our impression here is not in favor of prizes. When we began about years ago, there was a large amount of funds promised in the way of prizes. But the money so offered was not found to answer the expectations of those who offered it, and last year the matter was before the faculty for discussion, when the opinion was expressed, pretty unanimously, that prizes were of no special advantage and a large share of them were either withdrawn or converted to other purposes. We have never offered only about \$160, and I think that the proposal to convert them all into a fund for the increase of the library, would meet with nearly if not quite a unanimous vote in the faculty.

Sincerely yours.

.....

..... UNIVERSITY OF...., *May 19, 1876.*

DEAR SIR. — Inclosed you will please find the circular with reference to prizes in schools.

We have none in the College of...., and I believe none at all in the university. The feeling of the faculty is very strong against prizes of all kinds. We have no marking system, no honors at commencement nor at any other time. As a result we have a degree of harmony and good feeling among students and between students and faculty, which I have never witnessed in any other university in the country.

The standard of scholarship is kept high by means of observing the conduct of students in the recitation room, warning them when necessary and by rigid examinations. I greatly wish that prizes of all kinds might be abolished from all schools of every grade, believing that better scholarship, better morals and better manners would be developed without them.

.....
Dean of.... College of.... University.

..... STATE UNIVERSITY, *June 2, 1876.*

MY DEAR SIR. — In answer to your inquiries, I would say that we have no prizes in this institution except the honors of commencement day, valedictory, salutatory and scientific oration. I do not think there is any disposition among us to introduce them; unless it be that I should look favorably upon a prize for the best entrance examination (for admission to the freshman class) and also a prize for an essay or dissertation written under certain conditions during the senior year. In my judgment prizes, if any, should be very few in number and of not very great pecuniary value, and should in all cases be premiums for the faithful and efficient doing of the regular school work.

.....
President.

..... INSTITUTE, *May 25, 1876.*

DEAR SIR. — I have filled the blanks to your circular, and return it inclosed.

I had charge of Academy from 1826 to 1845. Prizes were given for composition, mathematics, and for other branches during that time.

When we organized this institution, this feature — prize giving — was omitted, and after this long experience under both systems, I am satisfied that nothing is gained, and much put at hazard, by the giving of prizes.

Very truly.

..... INSTITUTE.

DEAR SIR. — The prize system was abolished here about three years ago, at my earnest request. It may be, and probably is, an incentive to some, while upon a larger number its influence is most disastrous. There are in every school honest faithful workers, who cannot compete successfully with another class, who have the faculty of appearing to know

much more than they really do. Besides, it requires greater discriminating power than many of us possess to judge impartially as to who is the honest winner. Those who pursue their studies under the most favorable circumstances, other things being equal, should be judged by a more severe rule than those whose path to learning seems hedged in by almost insurmountable difficulties. Unless we can know all the influences and surroundings of our pupils in the home circle, and their motive of action, we cannot properly estimate their efforts, and the corresponding results.

I have felt most painfully my own inability to be just to my pupils — when obliged to make a decision of this kind, and I think it impossible for an examining board to make just decision from the results of an examination, whether oral or written.

I do not find that our standard of scholarship is lowered since the prize system was abolished.

Respectfully.

TROY, March 22, 18 —.

DEAR SIR. — Your circular, dated January first, was duly received. Though my opinion on the subject may be of little consequence, such as it is, I give it freely. After an experience of more than thirty years in the school room, during all which time prizes were offered as a stimulus to industry, I cannot fully indorse the resolution in your circular, that the tendency of the practice is wrong, operating mischievously upon the social, moral and intellectual nature of those whom it is intended to benefit. I have never observed that its influence is of this character, especially if there always is, as there should be, such impartiality and justice in the award as to insure the confidence of the candidates, and this has always been the case where I have had the opportunity of witnessing its operation. That it does prove a powerful incentive to industry and effort to a certain extent, I can have no doubt; nor have I observed generally that the results of success on the one hand, or of failure on the other, have been such as are asserted in the resolution, except, perhaps, in a very few instances. Still I do not think on the whole, that the benefit is such as greatly to recommend the practice, or that a more excellent way may not be devised. The operation of the system as a stimulus to industry is only partial; for, in a class, it will soon be apparent that the chance of success in the competition lies only with a few; and though with those few it will continue longer to be effective, its influence ceases entirely with those, probably the majority, who see they have no hope of success. Its tendency in another direction, I think, is positively injurious. A pupil studying different branches, and belonging to different classes in which prizes are proposed, will probably soon find out that in some of his classes he has but little prospect of success, while in one or two others his chance is pretty good. In such cases I have often seen that the pupil will devote all his efforts to the one or two studies in which he hopes to carry off the prize, and neglect his duties in the others, even if they are more important.

Very respectfully.

B.

W..... COLLEGE, April 23, 18....

DEAR SIR.—My own experience and earnest convictions would be in favor of giving prizes to the young as an incentive to excellence in scholarship. Of course the motive of duty cannot be safely overlooked. Appeals to conscience can be made as readily with a prize as without it. And why should not the young be allowed to strive for tangible rewards as well as children of a larger growth? A clergyman will seldom write a sermon unless he has one to preach and expects to get paid for it. A lawyer will not often spend his time over a brief from which no fee is to be realized. Talk to these men about the duty they owe to society, and they will furnish a number of good reasons why children should not be expected to work for the mere love of the thing. But "these prizes create unpleasant jealousies and heartburnings between the members of a school." This is often so. So, it is true (more's the pity), that honors and emoluments of every kind are the cause of endless troubles between grown-up people who are supposed to live in obedience to the law of conscience. Let us pull the beam out of our own eye before we find too much fault with children for proving to us in their little quarrels that the child is father to the man.

I have been connected with a college as student and teacher for some twenty years. During half of this time the college has offered no specific honors and prizes; during the other half it has had the benefit of such incentives. The one period differs from the other as light differs from darkness. Students have occasional discords and alienations of feeling when they work for prizes and class honors; yet they *do* work, *do* improve their time and secure the objects for which they are sent to college. Emulation is a test of character, through which many pass with great benefit. Let no tangible rewards be offered in the shape of prizes or honors, and college life becomes vapid and flat, save when the students quarrel—as they certainly will with excessive bitterness—about matters of the smallest concern. There will be much less of study, less obedience to college law and less good feeling. There will be more rowdiness and more waste of time in hurtful reading. My belief is firm that prizes should be offered both in schools and colleges; at the same time that the most is made of appeals to the sense of duty and the love of learning.

Yours, with much esteem.

E. N.

UNIVERSITY OF....., }
March 31, 18 . }

DEAR SIR.—* * * * * My experience relative to the effect of prizes in schools is of the meagerest kind. I have always been connected with this institution as a teacher. But as human nature is always the same, I may tell what I have learned here. I do not suppose that our faculty would dispense with the offering of prizes to students, whether the prize be that of being declared the best, or one of the best scholars in his class, or of being published as having never missed a college duty while here—or being appointed college marshal—or obtaining a specific prize in books, etc., for excellence in any one study. I suppose we must look upon any and everything offered and given as a reward for well-doing as a prize. The nature of the gift, I take it, has

no place in deciding what is a prize ; it is only its object. I am inclined to think that we must change human nature before we can get along without prizes of some sort or other. They who patiently continue in well-doing shall receive, before the great white throne, eternal life. Paul labored to receive the prize of his high calling. There can be no unavoidable vice, then, in the principle of offering and giving prizes for extraordinary effort in a praiseworthy direction.

As I have declared above, I should hardly know what to do with my classes were I not allowed to stimulate them by the hope of gaining a prize from me ; a prize of some sort or other, a compliment for an excellent recitation ; an opportunity to show his fellows that he knows what he is about ; a reading him out as a good scholar at our public gatherings ; a special testimonial to the public (besides his diploma) that he is worthy of confidence, etc. Some of our professors offer a prize of books and they have not found it to work ill. I know that jealousies and envyings, and heartburnings and hates, and charges of partiality, etc., may, and sometimes do, arise in these contendings for prizes, but only to a limited extent, and they work their own cure. * * *

When the gospel was preached of contention Paul rejoiced and would rejoice.

I remain, etc.

C. P.

We have thus given, as we suppose, nearly all the views entertained on the subject of school prizes, except the so-called prize scholarships which are so varied, and in many cases so conditioned, that they ought not to be indiscriminately brought into this discussion.

The first of the letters in advocacy of the prize is rather a remarkable one, for while distinctly denying, it clearly establishes, as far as one witness can, at least two points against which it is aimed. Nor is there any inconsistency in this as will be found on a careful reading, and noting to whom, in each case, the remarks reply.

That "its influence ceases entirely with those, probably the majority, who see they have no hope of success," is claimed as a proof of intellectual harm ; negative it is true, yet none the less absolute on that account ; while "I have often seen that the pupil will devote all his efforts to the one or two studies in which he hopes to carry off the prize, and neglect his duties in the other, even if they are more important," is claimed as affecting, injuriously, both the "moral and intellectual nature," since thus his own intellect must suffer to the extent of such neglect ; and the undue advantage thus taken of his competitors is, to say the least, of very doubtful honesty. That it makes fearful inroads upon friendly companionship seems to be a universal admission. And in answer to this we are told that "honors and emoluments of every kind are the cause of endless troubles among grown-up people." This is too true. But such troubles and quarrels are never considered as

exhibiting true manly nature, or as an evidence of amiable and lovable qualities, and, hence, it would be wise to repress rather than foster such development in the young. All these things, like noxious weeds everywhere, will grow soon enough without special culture. It is a mistake to suppose that we are thus giving them experience for the great battle of life, when we are simply forcing germs which will make life's pathway more thorny and tangled, and life's battle less pleasing. But "we should hardly know what to do with our classes if we were not allowed to stimulate them by the hope of gaining a prize." Not having tried a *better* system, that may be so, as is declared; but if, as is alleged, the *majority* are not stimulated by the offered reward, are the *rights* of the majority duly regarded? — or, is it claimed that the system is *intended* but for the few? Are not teachers bound to work for the greatest good of the *greatest number*? It is said that they can add other inducements to the prize. Will they do it? And, if they do, with what unction can they urge upon the majority what they *practically* believe and declare to be *lower* motives, and with what hope of success? Can any system of school discipline which fails to raise an aspiration in the breasts of the greater number of those on whom it is intended to operate, be the true one? Again, the prize system fails even where it ought to triumph. The prize scholars are not the prize men of the country, or of the world. There are of course exceptions, but we believe it holds generally true, that the prize scholar does not meet the expectations of his friends, after he has left the school or the college. The great feat of his life has been accomplished; the great end for which he has been *taught* to toil has been gained; he holds the glittering prize; and, whether expected so to do or not, he will not unfrequently fail to pay back to science the value of the medal bestowed upon him.

It is sometimes objected that the offer of a reward, or the desire to gain the reward, is a strong temptation to dishonesty. It is true that competitors often resort to dishonest means in order that they may win; and it may be that the ease with which fraud can be practiced, and the difficulty with which it is detected, render the temptation peculiar. If this be the case, the objection may not be without force.

For the *physical* man, prize-fighting is under the ban of the law, and rightfully, because of its alleged cruelty and immorality. Are the wounds and bruises received in *intellectual* prize-fighting less cruel or less demoralizing because not seen by the natural eye? or because they touch more intimately the real, hidden self of the parties interested? Let reason and conscience answer.

The prize is presented as the highest motive for exertion — the most prominent object for which the candidate should struggle — while *right* and *duty* are thrown in the back-ground, or are wholly ignored. True,

we are told that "appeals to conscience can be made as well with a prize as without it." But will such appeals be as likely to affect the conscience thus forced into a subordinate place, admitting them made? And is it not *likely* that several appeals will be made to the desire for the prize, where one is made to conscience? thus showing the place which both teacher and pupil assign the prize. Appealing to conscience, under such circumstances, is trying to catch birds with what we call chaff, after failing to catch them with what we consider wheat. We add: That system which appeals to a lower motive when a higher one is available, is wrong in morals, since it elevates the lower and depresses the higher impulses of our nature.

We are told that "a clergyman will seldom write a sermon unless he has one to preach and expects to be paid for it," etc. No doubt the statement is *believed* to be true (though the most thrilling preaching that ever fell on mortal ear has been without money and without price), for the prize system ignores the great duty of labor as the highest obligation of social man; does not teach the pupil that there are moral obligations resting upon him to occupy some field of usefulness to the world; but that his only care should be to secure the prize for himself. And this doctrine, slightly modified, has a wide influence in social life. We teach it in the school and in the family. We practice it when we choose, for ourselves or our children, professions or business for life (without regard to our proper sphere of usefulness), for which we have no taste and no adaptation, being governed in our choice by the fancied return of gold or ease, the cause of innumerable business and professional failures — a fruitful source of social ill. Let what will be said about working for pay; let *pay* be the great object of our every effort, and truth and duty be practically ignored, and we float without anchor or helm, the sport of the waves and the storm. We would not abjure self, but seek *for self* in conformity with the injunction, "Love thy neighbor as thyself."

Again, it is said that the practice appeals to emulation, a legitimate principle of our nature which cannot be wisely overlooked. But how shall we understand the *term* emulation, in its good or bad sense? Not in its bad sense, certainly. If emulation means a desire to imitate, or equal, or excel others in praiseworthy acts, without wishing in any manner to detract from or depress them — a desire for advancement, improvement, prominence, eminence — does it need any such stimulus as a medal or a purse? If emulation implies these high motives, are they not all sufficient; or if not, is it proposed to present a *higher motive in the offered prize*? To what principle do we thus appeal? Not to emulation now, in the rightful sense. All the conditions are changed — the success of one procures another's failure. A new element has been introduced, a

new principle evoked. True emulation is a light kindled by its neighbor's torch, burning more or less bright, without in the least diminishing the brilliancy of that at which it was itself kindled. This new creation is a consuming flame of other origin, devouring its neighbor's torch, yet adding thus no light to its own. Emulation ought not thus to be tampered with — cannot be cultivated by means like these. In fact, it dies out from sheer necessity under such treatment, and ambition, avarice, selfishness or pride assumes its place; or it becomes, without remedy, emulation in its worst sense. But "life offers prizes to struggling manhood." Life offers to manhood few, if any, prizes on such conditions that one having gained a prize, another may not gain a like or equally satisfactory one. The prize scholar takes what, when taken, leaves nothing similar that others may gain. The requisite analogy is wanting to make the argument good. "The gospel sanctions the system." "Paul labored to receive the prize of his high calling." We only ask how many, equally deserving, perhaps, failed in consequence of his success? If none, are the systems of distribution one and like, or two and dissimilar. "When the gospel was preached of contention, Paul rejoiced and would rejoice." No doubt, and with the utmost propriety. But what would Paul be likely to say about those who should *learn* the gospel "of contention" for a purse or a medal?

"God distributes rewards." The argument as applied to the prize system is good for something, or it is not. The fair inference is, that those who use it, mean to assert that they follow the example set them by God himself, and therefore cannot be wrong, or at least may be right. Do they then mean to affirm that God offers rewards to men and mocks their honest, earnest efforts to gain the prize by giving it to a more successful competitor? That he closes the gates of paradise while the race is yet hot, shutting in the first arrived and shutting out those who, though struggling with all the powers bestowed upon them, are more slow in the course? We venture no such thing can be found in the whole economy of heaven. God rewards merit, not talent. The prize system rewards fortuitous success, not merit. Let us illustrate this point: A dozen boys of as many years, are about to commence some study, say written arithmetic. They are placed together in class. One of the twelve has had some training in so-called intellectual arithmetic, and besides, is so situated at home as to get assistance whenever needed. The rest are less fortunate in these respects. They study four or six months and are examined. A prize is to be awarded. The contest is a close one, but the pupil previously drilled is found to be a little the readiest, a little the quickest in reaching results. Which, now, will take the offered reward? Why, the one exhibiting the most ready scholar-

ship. The prize is his by virtue of the condition imposed. And yet either one of the eleven, had merit decided the contest, was better entitled to this distribution, for they had each accomplished more mental labor and acquired more knowledge. The same is true with regard to good conduct. Here is one whose moral surroundings at home are such that none other than good conduct has been possible. None other should be expected. Every thing which parental affection could suggest has been used to repress the vicious, and unfold the virtuous promptings of his nature. There is another, all of whose surroundings at home are such that vice is, to ear, and eye, and thought, most familiar. Parental affection has never watched with sleepless anxiety, "to pluck his feet from the ways that go down to the pit," and to turn him in the paths of virtue and truth. Now, these two so unlike, are brought together at the school. The one meets every requirement with regard to conduct without an effort. The other, quick in his perceptions, comprehends the new circumstances in which he is placed, and by a strong effort succeeds in a course of conduct with which, as a whole, little fault can be found, and which does him the highest credit. As compared with the other he falls somewhat short. Comparing each with himself, his deserts are vastly greater than those of the other. He has improved by his own effort. The other has gone on in the way in which he has always been instructed. And yet this latter will take the prize for good conduct, whenever such prize is to be awarded. It is submitted that this is mischievously unjust. And the injustice of the award is looked upon by pupils as a practical proof of the importance which those whom they *should* regard as models in morals, attach to just dealing and the claims of moral honesty. But there is another objection here. The prize system, as practiced, is manifestly wrong in this : that by comparing one boy with another, it practically assumes that God has made all of equal mental capacity, which is by no means true. Let the boy be compared with himself, and let the award be made for improvement *upon himself*, or not at all. Then we shall oftener hear of prize scholars after they have left the schools. And then, too, we shall cease to hear of some at least, of the ill effects of the prize system. If it be objected that such a plan would be impracticable, that its execution would be impossible, expensive and burdensome, we answer, be it so, it is the only system that justice commends, if prizes must be given, for what, as we believe, prizes should never be offered in advance — for *duty bribed is virtue sold*.

To that practice which should, without previous intimation, bestow upon praiseworthy effort and conduct, rewards and commendations which would be genuine and valuable certificates of character, these remarks do not, of course, apply.

We have then these results:

1. The prize system stimulates the few and fails to stimulate the many. On this point its advocates and opponents generally agree.
2. It acts unfavorably upon the majority, either through discouragement or neglect, or both; and, hence, intellectual harm.
3. It precludes the successful employment of those higher and worthier motives which affect man as a moral and social being, whose right employment better fits him for a true and noble life.
4. It operates unfavorably upon the competitors themselves, in accordance with the well known law, that a growth produced by unnatural and extraordinary stimulus is abnormal and unhealthy.
5. It has a strong if not a legitimate tendency to unpleasant rivalries, to envyings, enmities, jealousies and hates.
6. It develops and fosters selfishness and pride, never agreeable or desirable in social life.
7. It ignores truth and justice in its assumption of equalities, where, by God's own fiat, equalities do not exist.

QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING INDUSTRIAL DRAWING AS A BRANCH OF EDUCATION.

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The words, "questions and suggestions," in my title, might seem to savor of indefiniteness, but, when we reflect that the subject, in its present aspects and tendencies, is a very recent one in this country, outside of the polytechnic schools, and a few special schools, and that the present may reasonably be called a time of popular excitement about it, the title may, after all, signify as much as it is wise now to put forth on the general subject. For with whatever certainty experts in specific portions of the field may be able to speak, few, if any, could yet pretend to lay down fixed principles and rules regarding the allotment and distribution of all portions of it, among all pupils, places and schools.

While, then, I may not be dogmatic, yet, if I raise important questions, and then endeavor to answer them by suggestions looking towards a correct solution, the cause which I advocate may ask and obtain willing listeners, even though considerable time may be spent in laying the foundations on which such conclusions as I can now construct shall rest.

Let us then, without further introduction, proceed to discuss —

- I. The principal kinds of schools.
- II. The main divisions of drawing.
- III. The various classes of pupils or students.
- IV. Questions and suggestions concerning the adaptation of these elements to each other.

I. *The Principal Kinds of Schools.* — Schools, placed under a very broad classification at first, before coming nearer to immediate experience, may be most comprehensively divided into —

First. Schools which regard man in the abstract, and in his totality; that is, as a sharer, in each case, in all the elements of human nature; and, hence, as entitled to such kind of education as will discipline all his faculties, both of body and mind. These are *general schools*.

Second. Schools which regard each man in the concrete, or in his individuality, as possessed of such a determining combination of the elements of human nature as fits *him* to be an instrument for the production of some one thing. These are distinctively technical, special or trade schools.

The former, or the general schools, as they may be called, *gymnastic*, as distinguished from *technic*, as Scott Russell* entitles them, may, and perhaps to an unrealized extent actually do exist, in two well marked parallel lines, according as they are principally devoted, either to the study of man or of nature; of human life and action, mind, literature, history, society; or of material nature, mathematics, physics, geography, meaning all descriptive science of the earth, and natural history.†

One of these lines of study, and of successive institutions devoted to its maintenance, may, therefore, be called humanistic, as being concerned with the study of man; the other, naturalistic, as devoted to the study of nature.

Leaving the development of this distinction, which might fill a lecture or a volume, and coming at once to grades of schools, we reach present experience, in which schools are classified as to grade, into "elementary," in the sub-grades of primary, intermediate and grammar; secondary, including high schools, academies, and the schools styled preparatory; "superior," or colleges and universities; and "professional," meaning, in the strictest and best sense, schools where practice is studied as founded on principles, and where the students have already been liberally educated in one or the other of the two parallel lines of general schools.

These two lines coincide, up to the high school, or may do so, for the simple natural reason that it is commonly at, or about the time of entering this that the pupil, especially the boy, begins to think what he will be and do in the world; hence we should thenceforward have‡ separately:

Humanistic.

High schools and academies,
Colleges and universities,
Professional schools of law,
divinity, etc.

Naturalistic.

High schools and academies,
Colleges and universities,
Professional schools of engineering,
architecture, etc., commonly called
polytechnic schools.

These parallel lines are already, to a considerable extent, actually realized in the United States, perhaps, as already hinted, more fully than is commonly supposed, though in a partly commingled and indistinctly recognized manner, as if the country had found its way to the supply of an original and instinctively felt want, instead of organizing the two lines according to a preconceived plan. This, however, is not said reproachfully, for it may be one of the ways in which the State becomes a free natural growth, instead of a manufactured product, a mechanism; the former idea being more agreeable to the Anglo-Saxon genius, if I

* Technical Education, p. 131.

† Technical Education, p. 257.

‡ Technical Education (Scott Russell), p. 26.

mistake not, in reading the great contrast between English and continental methods of providing for scientific education, as described by Scott Russell.

I was saying that the two parallel lines of general schools are, in this country, realized more in fact than in separate and systematic form. Thus, as a general statement, the academy is preparatory to the college; and often in the high school, and in academies and colleges,* the two lines exist, by division of their students and studies into parallel classes and courses called, the one "classical," the other "scientific." Also in Boston, and perhaps in a few other places, the formal separation of the high school into two separate high schools, known as the "English" and the "Latin" ones, or by other equivalent terms, has taken place, while the parallel professional schools of law, medicine, etc., on one side, and of engineering, architecture, etc., on the other, are always distinct organizations. It must, however, be confessed, and that with regret, that while in both of these classes of professional schools, college or liberally trained students are too few, they are almost wholly wanting in the naturalistic class of such schools, desirable as it is in behalf of general mental maturity and appreciative fitness for professional study, that such students should be graduates of the general scientific courses in colleges; as they might be, after a few efforts at concerted action among higher educators in grading the students of high schools or academies, of college scientific courses, and of polytechnic schools, so that continuous progress could be made through these three successive institutions without overlapping.

A very important principle, having many other applications, should here be stated in explanation of the proposed, and already partly existing, parallel lines of successive institutions. Things classified as distinct often differ, not by the *entire exclusion* from each of that which marks the other, but by the *predominance* in each of that which is *subordinate* in the other. Thus, in these parallel series of institutions, the classics and metaphysics, which are characteristic and required in one, would be incidental and elective in the other; and likewise the material sciences and modern languages, which are principal in the naturalistic series, would be subordinate or optional in the humanistic one. The modern languages are here specified, not as superior in disciplinary power to the ancient ones, but as being the storehouses of desired knowledge of modern science, while yet sufficient for ordinary purposes of linguistic study.

Leaving now these two classes of general schools, a moment only can be spared to glance at the various special or trade schools for training artisans in their specialties without accompanying general culture. Scott

* Report of Commissioner of Education, 1874.

Russell* enumerates no less than eighteen, among which are those for:

1. Machinists and associate pattern-makers, smiths, etc.
2. Carpenters, masons, plumbers, etc.
3. Cabinet-makers, wood-carvers, upholsterers, etc.
4. Sheet and plate-metal workers.
5. Manufacturers of products from vegetable raw materials.
6. Manufacturers of products from animal raw materials.
7. Glass-makers.
8. Pottery workers.
9. Farmers and gardeners.
10. Instrument, and model-makers.

And all these, and more, were proposed for ordinary workmen, with the addition of a higher series of institutions for superintendents and foremen of the various scientific industries.

Of the necessity of the training so afforded, besides that ending in the polytechnic schools, and properly joined with liberal culture, for civil, mechanical and mining engineers, civil and naval architects, professional chemists, geologists, etc., to enable a modern nation to hold its own in the world-wide competition and rivalry, which is both revealed and stimulated by "universal expositions," a number of competent British official judges agree with the words of one of them,† "Out of ninety classes of articles exhibited, there are scarcely a dozen in which pre-eminence is unhesitatingly awarded to us. * * * The *one cause*, upon which there was most unanimity of conviction, is, that other nations possess good systems of industrial education * * * and England possesses none." This was in the "report relative to technical education by the schools inquiry commission of 1867;" and now, mark, that industrial, not recreative and pictorial drawing, is an essential in the whole of this technical and scientific education. This leads us naturally to consider:

II. *Kinds of drawing.* These will appear from the following table. Since it is doubtful whether any instrumental drawing, however superbly executed, would be reckoned under the head of fine arts, the whole province of fine-art drawing is here ruled out of consideration as foreign to our purpose.

Developing, therefore, only industrial drawing in detail, its two grand divisions are: *Free-hand drawing*, meaning all which is done by the unassisted eye and hand, at least so far that instruments are used, if at all, only in subsequently testing the accuracy of what is at first drawn without them; and *Instrumental drawing*, so called because executed

* Technical Education, p. 10.

† Quoted in Technical Education, p. 94.

with instruments, and otherwise somewhat ambiguously called geometrical or mechanical drawing.

TABLE.

Drawing.	Fine Art.	Disciplinary.	Geometrical.	Lines.
			Natural.	Figures.
	Free-hand.	Applied or practical.	Conventional.	Conventional—Representation of materials in drafting. Topographical elements.
			Real—Industrial design.	Real—Natural forms.
				Writing.
				Lettering.
				Topographical drawing.
				Pen.
				Brush.
				Laces—Carpets—Prints—Linens.
				Paper—Leather—Upholstery, etc.
				Pottery—Plaster.
				Glass—Metal.
				Wood, etc.
				Household wares, ornaments.
				Furniture.
				Carriages.
	Industrial.	Instrumental.	Disciplinary, general or theoretical.	Use of instruments.
			Professional or practical.	Plane problems. Descriptive geometry. Shades and shadows. Perspective.
				Structure drawing.
				Machine drawing.
				Stone cutting.
				Stair building, etc.
				Wood. Masonry. Metal.
				In elementary and higher grades.

The division of free-hand drawing into disciplinary and practical, has regard partly to the condition of the pupil as a learner, as well as to the thing drawn; the immediate purpose of the exercise being to gain acquaintance with his materials, in short, the learning how to do what, when learned, will be followed as a business.

Under the head of "applied or practical" free-hand drawing, we learn incidentally where the separately taught branches of penmanship, lettering and topography are properly classed in the sum total of drawing. They are branches of drawing, yet in something like the sense in which spelling is nominally a part of grammar, always defined as such, seldom popularly thought of or practically treated as such.

Coming, finally, to "industrial design;" this, in its various subdivisions, is the subject-matter of nearly all of what is now so persistently pressed upon the attention of educators, professedly in behalf of manufacturers and various art industries. As shown in the table, it may be divided according to its main applications; which are to surface decoration of fabrics, walls, etc.; household wares, for use or ornament; furniture and carriages; each and especially the first two, with many varieties; the first ranging from a napkin to a velvet carpet of one pattern in one piece, and in the second, from a tea-cup to a mantel clock. Yet, oh, and alas, in wandering through the glitter and small glory of these things at the Centennial, many a one must say with intense empha-

sis "Where moth and rust do corrupt and where thieves break through and steal;" and yet more, "A man's life consisteth not in the abundance of the *things* that he possesseth," and must hasten to rest his soul in the "log-cabin" embowered in corn and running beans, and dream and wish it were real and his own, with a great back-log in the roaring fire-place, plenty in the cellar and pantry, and Walter Scott and John Bunyan complete, upon the shelf; free from all lamentings and frettings over broken glass, nicked china, worse than broken, missing chandelier drops, scratched silver or varnish, and from, "where shall we go, and what shall we do, and how shall we dress."

But manufacturers or applied-art workmen, those whose occupations need the aid of free-hand industrial drawing, are not the only classes who need a form of drawing. The whole mechanic class, strictly so called, those whose work is geometrically exact, embracing machinists, founders, smiths, mechanical pattern-makers, carpenters, masons, plumbers; ship, stair and car builders, wheelwrights; instrument, apparatus, model, watch and tool makers; sheet-metal workers, lock and gunsmiths — all this large array of distinct, important and quite generally diffused pursuits embraces many thousands of intelligent mechanics, many of them of an especially high class, and evidently all needing drawing as much as do the designers of dress goods, shoes, carpets and table ware, but, as is equally evident, of a very different kind.

We have, then, over against the whole province of *free-hand industrial drawing*, so broad and highly important, because so variously, extensively and usefully applied, the equally broad and important, and quite distinct province of *instrumental industrial drawing*, founded on plane and descriptive geometry. Descriptive geometry is a name, fearful only from its present unhappy unfamiliarity, and a subject which, as to its general principles, ought to be taught at least in every college which advertises a general "scientific course," parallel with its "classical" one. It is briefly the body of principles and systematic general problems which teaches how to represent all geometrical solids or practical objects having these dimensions, not merely as they *appear* — that is, pictorially — but as they actually are, as seen in plans, elevations, sections and details; so that from the drawings representing the design existing as yet only in the mind of the engineer, or architect, or master workman, that design can be realized by the workman, in its intended form and dimensions.

To such drawings, shadows can be added, just as they actually are, when occasioned by a given direction of light and form of body; and from such drawing, perspectives can be geometrically constructed, which will differ from those drawn by the free hand of the artist, in that the

latter are *believed* to be correct by *faith* in the accuracy of the artistic eye, while the former are *known* to be so, as founded directly on the certain principles of geometry.

Thus equipped, the members of all the many exact mechanical trades and professions, are prepared to apply their knowledge in the drawing of the multitude of objects which pertain to their callings — structures, buildings and machines, with their accessories. We come then next to

III. *Classes of Pupils.* After the preceding explanations, these may be divided, relatively to our subject, according to their intended and probable future pursuits, into farmers, merchants, mechanics and artisans, together with the class of candidates for further and higher educational training. The terms mechanic and artisan, I here, for convenience, use distinctively, as representing, the first, those whose operations chiefly depend on rule and measure, as carpenters and machinists; the second, those who are guided wholly or largely by the eye and hand, as carvers and glass blowers.

The higher students named may be those of engineering, mining, land and marine architecture, or of direction and superintendence of manufactures, or of public works, or of technical teaching. This brief summary brings us to

IV. *Practical questions and suggestions.* We have reached this point as fast as we could, and at the same time make a path intended to be plain enough to be found and followed again. Some, if not all, of the questions which arise, might have been discussed in immediate connection with the heads of the tables of schools, and of the kinds of drawing; but such a course was avoided, as liable to hinder a clear and connected view of the subjects of those tables. They are, therefore separately given here as a practical conclusion, at least an approximate one, to what precedes.

Regarding, then, the various kinds of *schools*, of *pupils* in them, and of *drawing* for them, we ask —

1. Which pupils need drawing, or can have it?
2. How much of it do they need?
3. Of what kind shall it be?
4. How far immediately industrial shall it be?
5. Where shall it be obtained?
6. How much shall be taught to any one pupil?
7. How shall teachers of it be obtained?

1. Which of the pupils of all grades and kinds of schools need drawing? I answer at once: All who have time for it, without sacrificing what will be of more importance to them. But here, in simple words, is a very broad

qualification. Let us see what it includes. We cannot alter the undoubted natural fact that human society forms a pyramid, in which there can be and need be but one apex, while there must be and will be a very broad base. All that there is wrong, or, if you please, undemocratic, about this, is in keeping any person or class of persons below the plane which nature has made possible to them, by force of arbitrary law or custom, in putting artificial obstructions to their free ascent.

There is a broad and deep reverence for human nature, out of which springs a true respect and affection for every sharer in it, however humble. Yet this feeling is perfectly consistent with the belief that many a boy may be educated out of his natural sphere, by consuming the time which should have been used in appropriate training for it, in spoiling him for something else, in which he inevitably fails; perfectly consistent, too, with plain common sense and good feeling, free from all mean and narrow class pride, in asking, who would do all our kitchen and cleaning work if all our women were Mrs. Somervilles or Rosa Bonheurs; or our garden and stable work, express driving, and road mending, if all men were Newtons, Scotts or Mozarts? And yet these last, and all like them, can associate with the humblest of their honest fellows, with entire mutual respect and friendliness, even to the point of each sincerely mourning the loss of the other. This I take to be the "equality" meant in the declaration of independence, that all are sharers in one and the same kind of being—human being—and all equally free from such hindrances to progress as are willfully imposed by others.

These principles have an important bearing on success in the matter now discussed. Except as origin, climate, government and admixture of peoples, have, in our case, modified the English race, we, as a nation, are of that race, and may therefore pertinently inquire for the deeper cause of the cause already assigned for British relative retrogradation, as revealed at previous successive world's fairs. In wandering over the earnest pages of Scott Russell's work, we find it in the clearly betrayed deficiency of just these views and feelings relative to the claims of man simply as man. Says this author,* mournfully, "Why, upward through life, should there be one building—one school—one seat at college, reserved for the son of the rich and great, and the poor and humble scholar, of capacity and promise, be removed, apart, into another?" While in Prussia,† side by side, in the barrack and in the field, the peasant private soldier and the peer private soldier serve as daily comrades, on a perfect level, enjoying the amenities of life and roughing it together. Like a retreating and then returning wave, beating against the famed Eddystone light-house, he dashes his appeals.

* *Tech. Education*, p. 390.†

† Page 74.

against the unmoved conservation of British aristocracy with such facts as these: * "This, too (alluding to a refusal of more money for education) from a House of Commons which grudges £1,000,000 a year for education, yet gives without stint £25,000,000 for future war, and £25,000,000 more for the debt of past war," and, in other words, † he desires "the Commons to vote funds for cultivating our own nation, which shall bear some fair proportion to the sums voted for killing people of other nations." And, once more, a specimen of many like rousing appeals to true national honor: ‡ "The contrast between England and Switzerland is this, that England spends more than five times as much on pauperism and crime as she does on education, and that Switzerland spends seven times as much on education as on pauperism and crime." And *what* a commentary on this is the splendid and noble exhibition of brave little Switzerland at the Centennial.

Such as the foregoing, are the views of human nature and the true greatness of a people, which must underlie heartiness and consequent success in all grades and kinds of education. Let us consider their bearing on our immediate subject, and relative to various communities.

Looking over the whole country, its sterile and its pioneer portions, and its demand for the coarser forms of labor, we must admit that many thousands will, and must be small farmers, traders and laborers, or must be humble agents in the vast business of transportation, porters, drivers, brakemen, switchmen, sailors, etc.; that their entire period of schooling must be short, and that they neither need or can have much, if any, drawing.

Of farmer, merchant, artisan and mechanic pupils, it seems obvious that the two latter classes need drawing, both as to quantity and variety, more than do the two former. These should not take it up until they have been suitably trained in what they more immediately need. Indeed, this subject, taking the country at large, might well be left for them as an elective study, to be chosen by them, or by their advisers for them, as circumstances should dictate.

Equally obvious is it, that the whole vast class of workmen who add value to material by expending intelligent labor upon it, should possess a greater or less amount, and appropriate kind of knowledge of drawing. "Complete plan-drawing applied to his own business, is an essential to a good workman," says the builder of the Great Eastern, again, § and elsewhere, || "For all the mechanics engaged in house-building, and for

* Tech. Education, p. 172.]

§ Tech. Education, p. 404.

† Page 436.

| Page 352.

‡ Page 306.

all others, the various kinds of geometrical and plan-drawing are indispensable." For these conclusions, he gives ample reasons, agreeably with which we find instrumental, and other drawing figuring largely in all special schools for mechanics and artisans, as well as in the polytechnic schools.

But still another interesting and important class claims mention, one in which this nation is prolific, and of which she is justly proud. I mean mechanical inventors. The relations of a thorough knowledge of mechanical drawing, more particularly, to successful invention, are close and powerful. For it is just that intimate and prolonged communion with a mechanical object, which is gained by completely drawing all views of it, whole and in detail, that most naturally suggest improvements in it, or a better substitute for it. This agrees with some very pleasant teaching experiences of my own, in which I have often noted the still and absorbed eagerness of a student, sitting with a mechanical contrivance dissected before him, busy in measuring and drawing it, and not without subsequent practical results in some cases.

Finally, a mechanical workman, who cannot read the working drawing which expresses the thought of the engineer, architect, or other master, is like the cook who cannot read a receipt, the captain who cannot read his orders, or the wanderer who cannot read the advertisement which directs him to something for his advantage.

Therefore, with the limitations now explained, we repeat, as the answer to the first question: All need drawing so far as they can get it in the school-life at their command, without sacrificing what is of more immediate importance to them.

2. *How much drawing is needed?* Just as much as can be thoroughly learned in its principles and practice, pertaining to the student's intended business, in the time at command; and remembering that drawing is one of the principal and essential elements in the education of mechanics and artisans. Speaking for the former, if a momentary reference may be made to my own works, in the absence, as yet, of any other like series, substantially the contents of my elementary volumes or an equivalent selected from various authors, for workmen below the grade of masters, and students below those of the schools of engineering, etc., and substantially the contents of the entire series for the latter classes.

3. *What kind of drawing shall it be?* I have partly answered this question in advance, while explaining the table of kinds of drawing, and in calling more distinct attention to the magnitude and importance of instrumental drawing as distinguished from free-hand drawing, both being alike useful, and properly called industrial. Again, applying the

principle of distinction by the subordination, rather than the exclusion of some element, it seems obvious enough that *free-hand* industrial drawing should predominate in the training of artisans, as I have distinctly called them, and that *instrumental drawing*, in a separate and complete course, should likewise predominate in the training of mechanics; that is, of all who are engaged in work which depends as much, or more, on exact rule and measure as upon the free eye and hand.

4. *How far should drawing in schools be immediately industrial?* This will depend on the age of pupils, and on the time possible to give to it, in addition to that required by other studies. A certain maturity of mind — the natural result of years and growth only — other things being equal, is essential to enable one to engage successfully in any practical calling requiring trained intelligence. Also, with a certain maturity, gained by means of those solid studies which best discipline and refine the mind, language, mathematics, natural history and ethics, practical arts, founded and administered on the principles gathered from these studies, can be quickly acquired where there is any aptness for them.

No one would expect a grammar-school graduate to be at once a practical designer of chandeliers or carpets, and that, on account of his general inexperience and immaturity. Neither would the like be expected of high-school graduates, partly for the same reason, and partly because the necessary studies in general science, literature, history, and, let us hope, in the elements of morals and political economy, which are to fit him for the general duties of life, do not leave an opportunity for either the *amount*, or, what is nearly as important, the *continuity* of time necessary to train practical workmen.

Inasmuch, then, as workmen cannot, in the nature of things, be generally graduates from our public schools, the question arises: Why teach any other drawing in them than ornamental or object drawing, as a general accomplishment, just as music is taught, together with such instrumental and, if need be, other drawing, as is necessary to properly prepare pupils for admission to higher institutions? Yet, as industrial designs or applied art should somewhere be taught, we are led to the next question:

5. *Where shall a knowledge of industrial drawing be obtained?* Replying agreeably to the remarks under the first division of this paper, "kind of schools," it would — and I now especially mean, first, instrumental drawing — if gained in connection with the various subjects of a liberal education, be obtained in the succession of science high schools and academies; science colleges, and polytechnic schools, in which its successive stages of theory and practice would properly be distributed

substantially as follows. Referring to the table of kinds of drawing, and observing that the whole field of instrumental industrial drawing exists in two grades, elementary and higher, the elementary stage of the several components of the general subject, viz. : certain useful problems of plane geometry, the use of drafting instruments and materials, and the elements of plan and elevation drawing, with elementary perspective, if time can be found for it, with appropriate special topics of free-hand drawing, should be taught to those high school and academy students who are candidates either for the mechanical industries, or for further and higher scientific education. Next, when progressive scientific education comes to be fully organized in successive institutions, the general principles and problems of descriptive geometry, shades and shadows and perspective, being not immediately professional subjects though the foundation of the higher orders of professional working drawings, should be taught in the scientific courses of all colleges having such courses, partly, also, in behalf of the fuller development and extension of professional drawing, such as should then remain as the peculiar graphical work in the polytechnic schools.

It is very gratifying, I may say in passing, after often and for a long time expressing the opinion just given as to the distribution of the several subjects of a full course of graphical theory and practice, to read that the organization of the Imperial Technical School of Moscow, a very superior one, embraces two successive divisions, general and special, each of which has a course of three years. Also, that the same graphical subjects which I have above assigned to the scientific courses in colleges, are there placed in the *general* division, which is essentially a college of general science and modern languages; leaving the working drawings of engineering structures and mechanics, etc., to the special division or distinctively polytechnic school.

Returning to the other branch of industrial drawing, viz., industrial design or applied art: For the many whose circumstances compel to take up the subject as an exclusive specialty, institutions like the Lowell School of Design, in Boston, an entirely independent school, mainly devoted to designs for textile fabrics and wall decoration; the Worcester Scientific School, with its shop practice, the Cooper Institute, with its wood engraving classes, and other separate industrial art specialties, should be multiplied, until one or more is found in every industrial center, confining itself, as these do, to instruction appropriate to the prevailing industries in its locality. Thus, eastern Massachusetts and the adjacent regions, form a special center of manufacture of textile fabrics of many kinds. Worcester is a noted center of mechanical industry, while the great metropolitan district of which New York city is the center, embraces

such a variety of industries, that its Cooper Institute properly gives a corresponding variety of instruction, though not all of it to all its pupils, but subdivided into seven specialties for as many classes of students.

This natural and healthy beginning in this country satisfactorily corresponds, so far as it goes, to what so eminently competent a judge as Scott Russell is by experience, strongly recommends for England; and to wide-spread continental practice, as shown both in his work on technical education, already often quoted, and by more recent accounts. Thus, we read of no less than twenty-eight of those schools, of the kind classed as special, or trade schools, in our table of "kinds of schools," scattered all over Italy, and each generally devoted to some one form, or to a limited group of associated forms of industrial art.

But there is a special reason, besides those already given, why free-hand industrial drawing, or industrial design, should be principally, if not wholly taught in special schools for the purpose. The industries to which its various branches are applied are generally more concentrated than are those requiring a knowledge of instrumental drawing. Thus, the manufacture of textile fabrics is generally conducted in comparatively limited localities, within which very numerous and large mills, employing, in the aggregate, thousands of operatives are located, as in eastern Massachusetts and the adjacent sections; while, as a general statement, the members of the very many and various mechanical trades already rehearsed, are more uniformly diffused throughout the country. Hence, if either general division of industrial drawing should be taught in the general public and private schools, instrumental drawing, taught to the extent already specified, which is certainly desirable, would seem to have a superior claim. But to pass on.

6. How many of the separate subjects, indicated in the table of "Kinds of Drawing," should be taught to one pupil! No more, I should say, at least to those destined to be artisans, than each will probably put in practice, or can use without violence to his natural aptitudes.

The placing of any thing like the matter of the entire table of "Kinds of Drawing" in one undivided course, to be given alike to all pupils, would require an amount of time generally impracticable, while to crowd it into insufficient time, would be quite likely to result in "a little of everything," and not enough of anything to be of practical use. Besides, a full course of instrumental drawing would probably be tedious to an injurious degree, to those whose decided natural gifts were in the direction of free-hand work. Likewise, the exactness of mind which would make the rigid truth of instrumental drawing, with the exact science on which its higher operations rest, correspondingly interesting,

would generally be unaccompanied by a special faculty for more purely artistic work. So that at least, each of the main divisions of drawing, instrumental and free-hand, should be subordinate for those who are naturally best fitted to succeed in the other. Some statistics on this point are very interesting and conclusive. Thus, in the Cooper Institute, already referred to, with a grand total of 2,758 pupils in 1874 and 1875, out of 306 machinists and iron workers, 144 took instrumental drawing, and nine took applied free-hand drawing; out of 232 carpenters and cabinetmakers, ninety-nine took instrumental, and eight design drawing; of 112 masons and builders, the corresponding numbers were fifty-one and two. But reversing the nature of the pursuits, the numbers are strikingly reversed also. Thus, among the carvers and turners, twenty-two took instrumental and 217 free-hand drawing; and of engravers and lithographers, sixteen took instrumental and 205 free-hand drawing.

So many of our questions being so far disposed of, lastly:

7. *How shall teachers be obtained?* We have at present four sources of supply. First, for teachers in common and special schools, the Massachusetts Normal Art School, the only one yet existing expressly for such teachers. Second, such institutions as the Lowell School of Design in Boston, a department of the Institute of Technology, and totally independent, in origin and work, of the Massachusetts State system; the Worcester Scientific School; the Cooper Institute; Cincinnati School of Design, etc., so far as their pupils may turn to teaching instead of industrial practice. Third, the pupils of our polytechnic schools, who doubtless are generally the most available teachers for the same schools. Fourth, foreigners suitably qualified in drafting or designing.

Now it is evident that these sources, whatever their quality, are inadequate, and, except the first, irregular. But as general and professional scientific education becomes better developed and coördinated in appropriate institutions, as already recommended, the college scientific courses and polytechnic schools, every one of the latter having, as it should have, a separate chair of descriptive geometry and its applications, will be more and more able to graduate well qualified, including, in this, highly cultured professors and teachers of the principles and practice of both instrumental and free-hand industrial drawing of the highest order.

Also, while, for reasons already given, special artisan schools will be needed in all great industrial centers, some additional normal art schools or provisional applied-art classes in existing normal schools will be needed to furnish teachers for these special schools, and so far, if at all, as upon full trial may be found best, for those higher public schools which are located in the densest industrial centers. In these normal schools, there should, as I believe, considering the strongly marked contrast between

instrumental and free-hand drawing, and their equally numerous and important applications, be two distinct parallel courses of three or four years each, the one mainly mechanical, the other mainly free-hand, each full, both in its theory and practice, and each also with appropriate subdivisions.

Further, it is very important here to add that much of aggregate fullness, richness and all-sidedness of national art development will naturally depend on variety of organization and leadership in the successive State systems that may arise. Each should be an independent growth under the guidance of a master of strong individuality, and fine natural artistic taste, and capacity for high culture. Eastlake furniture, some of it, is good, but not so good that we wish to see nothing else from Maine to California, any more than we wish for nothing but dahlias in our gardens. In like manner, we want various schools of industrial, as well as of fine art, each presided over, not by the mere manufactured product of a routine system, which can be made by prescribed school processes from the rudest personal raw material as surely as wool can be made by mill processes into cloth — though the character of the cloth *will* depend on that of the wool — but by fine native artistic capacity brought out by thorough and precise culture. By this illustration, I simply mean that neither original capacity alone, nor training alone, is sufficient to produce a proper director of art culture or industry, but that both united are necessary.

In a country like ours, as large as all Europe, and as varied in climate and scenery, there is both room and demand for French, German, Italian, Swiss and Russian art, together with what is very desirable, an indigenous school, if one can be inspired or cultivated into existence out of our own skies, autumns, birds, beasts and flowers, as seen through our national ideas and fancies.

In conclusion, and summarily, I could not recommend industrial drawing, without limitation, for all classes in the community, nor for all the pupils in all the schools; also there may be reasonable doubts as to whether it should be begun below the grade of high schools. Neither would I commend the whole field, or the whole of either of its two main divisions, to the study of any one pupil. Nor would I carry design in the general public schools to the point of immediate application to practice any more than I would carry physiology therein to the point of graduating trained nurses; or physics to the point of graduating stove manufacturers or glass-blowers. Nor need the subject be taught in the public schools as a means of educating the taste of the people, for the elementary stage, therein alone practicable, would be inadequate to such an effect — an effect which must be wrought upon the community by the

beautiful products of a high class of special schools of applied art, co-operated with, in all practicable and suitable ways, by the polytechnic schools.

Then, with the completeness and wise distribution of organizations here outlined, never forgetting to make State systems richly all-sided by the mutual independence of those systems, and inclusive, if possible, of a native school of art, it may result that, among the future honors of our country, there may be an age of art reciprocity, in which America shall give to other lands as much of industrial beauty as she shall take from them. So may it be.

HISTORY IN ITS RELATIONS TO PRACTICAL LIFE.

By Professor SELAH HOWELL, A. M.,
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It is not seldom we meet men whose zeal is greater than their discretion; who, driven on by eager desire, reach exhaustion and failure, instead of increased strength and the goal.

There is a suspicion prevalent that King George the Third's rebels, in their passionate desire for "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness," are overlooking the pearls of great price, failing to discern in their excited scramble the gems of first water. I think there is cause for the suspicion. We have lived so long in a hurry, that patient deliberation — wise preparation for the grave duties of life — is unusual. Zeal is commendable certainly, but zeal tempered by wisdom is safer.

The practical man has usurped the place of the thinker. Indeed, that word "practical" has become the central one in our vocabulary, the *sine qua non* of the delegate to the Cincinnati or St. Louis convention. How, in very love for it, we roll the word in our mouths as a delicious morsel and chew it until it no longer retains its compactness of sound, practical, but opens new richness in the "*practical*" man of every-day life. As if we were desirous, like the excited old gentleman in a revival meeting, who pronounced the word glory, gul-lo-ry, to get as much out of it as possible.

We are too practical to be altogether pious; and recent events in our history would compel me to add, too practical to be decent.

The merely practical man is ever an unsafe guide. He is too easily deceived by the glittering possibilities of the moment. The principle of action may escape his attention. The past, with its record of successes and failures, brings him no wisdom, little more oftentimes than disdainful regard. Who is the man that can win *now*? Who is "the great unknown" in the contest for votes and power? Such a philosophy of life is unsound, for it rejects the very valuable light of experience. And the nation that has no sounder philosophy runs into extravagance and hard times inevitably. It will go on repeating experiments that have been tried over and over again, and always with the same result.

Doubtless with our superficial, practical way of thinking, we shall continue to buy Alaskas and negotiate for Cubas until we shall have

more territory than we can find time to govern, and a commingling of civilizations that will make our present confusion confounded.

Is it not a little strange, and from a business point of view absurd, that so practical a people as we are should so conspicuously neglect two such conspicuously practical subjects as the English language and history? Our mother-tongue is almost the only language we do not study in college; and in general we suffer it to grow up like a neglected child, ragged, awkward, unchaste, lawless. History, its twin sister, receives but a passing glance of pity, save, perhaps, during centennial year, when our schools and colleges, feeling that in the presence of our foreign visitors it might be becoming for us to know a little something about our native country; or, for some other equally good reason, devote a term or two to the history of the United States. Well, it is, perhaps, better than nothing. But as "all noble things are difficult," we need not hope by some such sudden spurt of enthusiasm or politic condescension, to find the treasures in this vast field of man's endeavor. Centennial years can, in this respect, do little for us. They unfortunately do not occur quite often enough.

I believe, ladies and gentlemen, that this indifference to the thorough study of history, will not long so be. When matter has ceased to be, as surely in time it will, the object of such enthusiastic scientific research so notably marking the intellectual bent of this century, and when the skeptical spirit so often, we sadly admit, connected therewith, is humiliated by its own loneliness, then will man become the focus of all the light shed abroad, and the central object of research and thought.

While in conversation with Professor Mommsen of Berlin, on the subject of history, he seemed greatly interested in the progress of historical study in America, and asked me many questions about it. There was many a shrug of the shoulders and wise shake of the head as answer after answer fell upon his ears; pain and surprise combined in the unusually vigorous one which followed the statement that in the United States we gave little attention worthy of scholars to the subject of history. He could with difficulty believe that in most of our colleges history was assigned to the tutors; or if not given to them to teach, tucked into odd corners of the curriculum and as likely to get in the way of the professor of mathematics, or physics, or geology, as of anybody else. It was not easy for him to comprehend that the people of the United States, trying the great experiment and opening their doors to all the world — the ignorant, the base, the dissolute of all lands having free entrance — very difficult was it for him to comprehend that history, the record of the struggle in the battle of life, was either quietly ignored or openly denounced as too unpractical for practical men. It will not always be so, he said, but in a few years the depart-

ment of history in your institutions of learning will take much of the space now occupied by chemistry and physics. These sciences deal with matter, history with man.

America cannot afford to eschew the world's history. She is herself the fair promise of a slow growing knarled old tree, whose roots find sustenance in the heart of humanity, and whose branches, twisted and torn by the storms of hate and greed, still bear aloft precious fruit to gather which is a calling noble among the noblest.

Strange it is, indeed it is strange, that with the great questions, we, as citizens of a republic, are called upon daily by all lovers of liberty to decide, that with our large territory and extensive commercial relations we should discard as unpractical and therefore useless the study, which, above all others, deals most intimately with man.

I will not now stop to consider why it is that history receives so little attention in our system of education, although it is to me an interesting subject and its investigation might open to the light many things obscure and apparently inconsistent in our national life.

That history is eminently a practical subject, would not, I think, be difficult to prove. That it is also a necessary element in the symmetrical development of mind and heart which makes the apostle's injunction "Be ye perfect" possible, and brings us in unison with the divine harmonies, rests upon a solid foundation of fact. Extended treatment of these topics is forbidden by the brief time allowed the speaker.

Practically speaking the study of history is the study of human nature; and might I not very naturally suggest that that is a subject practical enough for the most practical of nations?

Is there a successful business man in the land who does not rest his success largely on his knowledge of human nature? Unless a man is idiotic, history is as unceasing in its demands as the stomach for food.

We live among men and women. There are forty millions and more at home in the United States. Nearly one hundred thousand live in Albany, and there are two hundred in this room. Man forces himself upon us. We cannot escape him. There is not a word spoken, a deed done, a love sanctified or unsanctified, that has not humanity as its origin. "Man is the subject of every history; and to know him and consider him, as history alone can present him to us, in every age, in every country, in every state, in life and in death. History, therefore, of all kinds, of civilized and uncivilized, of ancient and modern nations, in short all history that descends to a sufficient detail of human actions and characteristics is useful to bring us acquainted with our species, nay with ourselves." (Bolingbroke on the Study of History.)

History a study that should take the back seat! History fit only for book-worms and Messrs. Dryasdust! History too unpractical for prac-

tical men! "The oracle pronounced Socrates the wisest of all men living, because he judiciously made choice of human nature for the object of his thoughts; an inquiry into which as much excuses all other learning, as it is of more consequence to adjust the true nature and measures of right and wrong, than to settle the distances of the planets and compute the times of their circumvolutions." We venture the statement that we would be a far wiser nation, safer in our political *status*, and juster in our humanity, if the truths of history were more widely spread. "Histories make men wise," says Bacon.

Man in all his relations, his joys and sorrows, his hopes and fears, his science, his art, his religion, is the scope of history. But it would be still a failure did it not connect him with the author and finisher of our faith! The laws of history are the laws of God.

"Righteousness exalteth a nation, but sin is a reproach to any people," would give us excellent practical results if every citizen of the United States knew that the statement is as historically true as divinely inspired. "Blessed is that nation whose God is the Lord," is emphasized by the fate of every people whose history has come down to us.

That history is a necessary element in the symmetrical development of mind and heart which makes the apostle's injunction, "Be ye perfect," possible, and brings us in unison with the divine harmonies, is a deduction from the fact that history is not limited to what dead men have done, but includes what live men are doing.

Surely to know why men have been narrow in their intellectual range and bigoted in their religion, why they have grown so fast as to be unstable, or so slowly as to die before the growth was completed, and apply this knowledge, will help us to obey the apostle's command.

If history reveals to us the false theory that has preyed upon the mind, stunting its growth, wasting its strength; or the theological dogma that has made men zealots instead of Christians; surely, I say, history is not to be neglected, but studied with eyes wide open to its light, and hearts welcoming and accepting its truths.

How do we grow — physically, mentally, morally? This is an important question. Is the growth sudden? Does man become in a few days or weeks an harmonious exhibit of three different and antagonistic forces?

Are there no dangers to be avoided, no passions to be subdued, no dead limbs to be lopped off, no crookedness to be made straight? The history of man's development says yes. What is the life and what the death of the man whose physical powers are in the ascendancy?

Twenty-two hundred years ago Aristotle gave utterance to a truth confirmed by the experience of all men since, "*Διανοία δ' αὐτῇ οὐδέν κινεῖ.*" And he was right. "Mere intellect moves nothing." It needs

the enthusiasm of a great love for God and man to spur it onward. Alone, its fruit lacks the full richness of perfect development.

History again shows us that moral growth alone may result in fanaticism and terrible persecution. A man may be so moral as to be immoral; so religious as to lose his common sense.

I think, ladies and gentlemen, these statements are substantiated by the facts of history; that history speaks to us words of warning worthy our most careful consideration concerning any growth not symmetrical. If this be true, the young man or young woman that has learned wisely and well the great lessons of history, begins the strife in the fair light of day.

What, then, can history do for us? It can help us to know ourselves, what we are in our relations to the forces of the nineteenth century. If studied aright, history induces modesty, a rare virtue, and without which symmetrical development is impossible.

As a nation we need a little culture in that direction. It is well for a young man to learn early that there are other countries beside his own, with scenery just as grand and beautiful; with rivers as large and mountains as high; with cities equally as refined and just as strong; with fields just as broad and grass just as green; homes as home-like and hearts as loving; that the mothers of Greek and Roman and Jew were just as unselfish, just as true, as the mothers of Englishmen; that other maidens of other lands, white-armed as Juno or fair-cheeked as Briseis, have been loved and lost; that there have been other people quite as good, not less smart, just as sharp, quite as witty and fully as long-headed as himself.

What havoc history makes of our boasted superiority! American citizens, are we? Yes; but a few boatloads of yellow-haired, short-legged ruffians from the marshes of the eastern shores of the North sea are our ancestors.

No doubt we are very wise and very skillful in the affairs of life. Yet Egypt, thirty-five hundred years before Homer, knew almost as much and in skill beat us on our own ground. She supported seven millions (7,000,000) of people on about twenty-two hundred (2,200) square miles of territory, and was for centuries the granary of Europe.

There is little need, however, of illustration. Our place in the world's history is but a page or two of its annals; the Centennial, a passing picture of the panorama, forgotten before another can occur. "The shadow of a dream is man," said Pindar 500 B. C., and history confirms it. Modesty, the wide-open door of wisdom, is welcomed by history with its wise criticisms and humiliating examples.

But history does more than make us modest; it enables us to prepare for the future by avoiding the follies of the past. And still this is not

all. It would be well-nigh useless if by it the hand of God were not revealed.

Max Mueller in his celebrated lecture "Concerning the Results of the Science of Language," says: "I am convinced the science of language alone will yet place us in position to cry out to the evolution theory of the Darwinians a decided halt! and to draw the boundary sharply which separates spirit from matter, man from animal; (*"Ich bin ueberzeugt, dass die Sprachwissenschaft allein uns noch in den Stand setzen wird, der evolutions Theorie der Darwinians ein entschiedenes Halt! entgegen zu rufen, und die Grenze scharf zu ziehen, welche den Geist vom Stoff, den Menschen vom Thiere trennt."*)

History adds emphasis even to this bold statement, bringing out in clearer colors the picture of Paul on Mars Hill as he exclaimed, "And He hath made of one blood all nations of men for to dwell on all the face of the earth."

If we with diligence and humbleness of spirit seek to know man in these ages of his growth and decay, we shall find ourselves, I am sure, nearer Him "who is the Way, the Truth and the Life."

I am willing to rest the claims of history as a study indispensable to noble development, on this one fact, that it centralizes the great truth, "There is a divinity shapes our ends, rough hew them how we will."

PHYSICAL CULTURE.

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Nature has destined that the physical and intellectual education of man should be conducted in very different modes. The culture of the mind requires the early, constant, and well-directed efforts of an artificial system. That of the physical faculties is fully effected by the powers of unassisted nature. All she asks is, that we leave her free and unconstrained. Unhappily, our state of civilization, while it has copiously supplied the means of intellectual improvement, has, nearly in the same ratio, raised obstacles to the development of the physical powers, and if we wish to restore to these their original spring, we must either revert to our primary condition, or find substitutes in art for the modes employed by nature.

The importance of health to the regular exercise of the faculties of mind, as well as to the functions of the body, is very well understood in theory, and very generally neglected in practice. We are daily seen to accumulate the treasures of science on intellects where the physical machinery is disordered and made useless by the burden. What is the value of a brilliant genius, or a highly cultivated mind, to a weak and laboring frame? The mental abilities are found prematurely chained down by bodily weakness, are wasted, and perish unemployed.

Action is the object for which organization was created. If the organs are allowed to remain inactive, the channels of life become clogged, and the functions and even the structure get impaired. Young animals are filled with the desire of motion, in order that the fluids of the body may be forced rapidly through their tubes, the solids thus elongated and enlarged, and every part gradually and fully developed.

The immediate consequences of action on the bodily frame are familiar and visible to daily experience. Observe the sinewy arm of the mechanic. The muscles are large and distinct; and when put in motion they become as hard as wood and as strong as iron. Notice those who are accustomed to carry considerable weights on the head. The joints of the lower limbs are close set and unyielding; the frame perfectly erect and the attitude commanding. In the cultivator of the soil, though the frame may be vitiated by neglect, you may observe that the appearance of every part is healthful, vigorous, and well fitted for labor.

While all of us are desirous of possessing the excellent qualities of strength, hardiness and beauty, how defective are our systems of education in the means of acquiring them? In the present state of civilization, a child, soon after it can walk, is sent to school; not so much for the purpose of learning, as to relieve its parents of the trouble of superintending its early movements. As he grows older, the same plan is pursued and improved on, till a large portion of his time is passed in sedentary pursuits and in crowded rooms. In the short intervals of mental occupation, the boy is allowed to follow the bent of his own inclinations, and to seek in play that exercise which nature imperiously demands. The development of his system, though not what it was destined to be, is attained in a certain way, and he is exempted from some of the evils which fall so heavily on the other sex.

By long continued sedentary habits, an almost total neglect of exercise in the open air, and too prolonged and intense an application of the mind, the studious are but too apt to bring upon themselves a train of nervous affections, by which their progress in the pursuit of knowledge is often seriously impeded or entirely interrupted. To every student, therefore, the means of guarding against these evils should be a subject of no little interest, the vigor of the mind and its capacity for improvement being so intimately connected with bodily health.

The *general* causes of the derangements which tend to weaken the constitution, may be physical or mental. Among the most important physical causes are the want of the exercise proper to develop the powers of the body, and taking food improper in quantity or quality. The mental causes may be a too constant occupation of the mind in study, the influence of feelings or passions of a depressing nature, etc., etc.

The facts that show the want of exercise to be one of the greatest causes of these affections, and of the weakness that induces them, are very numerous; on the one hand, we observe that young people brought up to the hardy and laborious occupations, whether they are males or females, do not suffer in this way, and a still more remarkable fact of a general nature may be seen on a comparison between the two sexes.

The operation of mental causes on the bodily frame is not unknown to any of us; though they may not, perhaps, have been thought, in regard to education, to be of very great importance. As it is not in my power to enter fully into the subject, I would barely present it for your consideration. The effects of anxiety, grief, and other feelings, in diminishing strength and wearing away health, are, I judge, quite familiar to all.

Some of the immediate causes which lead to weakening the constitution, and which may be called local, in opposition to the former, are bad postures of the body and limbs. The habit of bending the neck

while writing or drawing, gradually causes a permanent change in the form of this part of the body. This distortion is so very common among us, that we are quite apt to consider it a natural formation. In fact, however, it is entirely artificial in a great number of instances. Sometimes it is the consequence of negligence, and not unfrequently of timidity. Whether it tends to impair the health always, I cannot say — its effect in deforming the shape of the body, however, is certainly very great.

Having adverted to the nature and causes of some of the defects that arise from want of attention to physical education, I shall now endeavor to throw out some hints as to the modes in which it may be improved.

Nature, as before remarked, if left to herself, is all-sufficient to the development of physical organization. But we live in an artificial state, a state that continually thwarts the course of the native dispositions of the animal economy; and as we must abandon the advantages of these, we must seek for substitutes in an artificial process.

The principles which should form the basis of such a process will readily be seen, on attending to the nature and causes of these defects. Observe that the remedy, or rather the preventive means, lies in a certain regulation of the sentiments, passion and intellectual operations; in promoting bodily activity; in a salutary regimen, and in some other inferior considerations.

In regard to the first of these, that is, to what relates to the mind, it is not my purpose to treat, and I shall simply advert to some of the others.

Toward a perfect system of education, it is necessary there should be a balance present between physical and intellectual cultivation. When the mind is closely occupied, the body should be carefully guarded. If the pursuits of the former are severe and absorbing, those of the latter should be cheerful and relaxing. Instead, then, of abandoning the physical to the intellectual culture, it should be increased in the same ratio, and followed with the same earnestness.

Exercise is so material to physical education that it has sometimes been used synonymously, though it really constitutes only a part of it. In order that exercise may have its due operation, it must begin at the earliest period of life, and of course the parent must in this act the part of the instructor. He should take pains to have the infant carried into the air every day, and in every season. In the earlier years the dress should be arranged so as to allow that use of the body and limbs to which nature prompts, with freedom and without impropriety. Young persons, however well disposed, cannot support a restriction to one place and one posture. Nature resists such restrictions; and, if enforced, they are apt to create disgust with the means and the object. Thus, young

men learn to hate exercises and studies that might be rendered agreeable, and they take an aversion to instructors who would otherwise be interesting to them.

The postures they assume while seated at their studies are not indifferent. They should be frequently warned against the practice of maintaining the head and neck long in a stooping position; and the disposition to it should be lessened by giving a proper elevation and slope to the table or desk, and the seat should have a support or back of a few inches at its edge. The arms must be kept on the same level, and there should be room to support them equally or the right will be apt to rise above the left from its constant use and elevation. A standing posture in writing and studying is not the correct one for young persons. The secret of posture consists in avoiding all bad and all long continued positions.

The ordinary carriage of the body in walking should be an object of attention to every young person. How different are the impressions made on us by a man whose attitude is erect and commanding and by one who walks with his face directed to the earth as if fearful of encountering the glance of those he meets.

If nature has not given beauty of face to all she *has* given the power of acquiring a graceful movement and upright form, the qualities more valuable and more durable than the other. These qualities are lost or gained in youth, for I think it will be generally admitted that the years which young men spend at the colleges and universities are those in which active exercise proves peculiarly beneficial in strengthening the frame, for then growth is comparatively in abeyance while development is unusually energetic. The osseous system is mapped out, but the bones are not thoroughly set. They are still, as it were, very malleable, and the cartilages also are prepared to yield and the chest may be taught to enlarge its boundaries. Many a youth who was, perhaps, shooting up a mere weed, slight, frail and tall, has, by a judicious course of physical instruction, been moulded into a robust and well built man.

The influence of an upright form and open chest over the health is sufficiently understood, and what may be done to acquire these qualities is shown by many remarkable examples.

Dr. Warren in his able letter on this subject, from which I largely quote, writes as follows: "For a great number of years it has been the custom in France to give young females of the earliest age the habit of holding back the shoulders and thus expanding the chest. From the observations of anatomists lately made, it appears that the clavical or collar-bone is actually longer in females of the French nation than in those of the English. As the two nations are of the same race, as there is no other remarkable difference in their bones, and this is peculiar to

the sex, it must be attributed, as I believe, to the habit above-mentioned; which, by the extension of the arms, has gradually produced a national elongation of this bone. Thus we see that habit may be employed to alter and improve the solid bones. The French have succeeded in the development of a part, in a way that adds to health and beauty, and increases a characteristic that distinguishes the human being from the brute."

And Dr. Morgan in the course of his valuable remarks on this subject says: "In examining patients for insurance companies, I have frequently refused the lives of young persons on the ground that their chests were narrow and shallow. In several instances, however, these thoracic defects have been corrected by a systematic course of gymnastic exercises, justifying me at a later period in recommending their acceptance."

Unmindful of such lessons as these, many men look upon the cultivation of their minds as a sacred duty, while they utterly neglect the comparatively easy task of keeping their bodies in working order, and yet it is a question whether attention to bodily culture is not of even more importance to the well-being of our race. For we should never forget that outward form is more surely transmitted to a man's descendants than mental qualities, however high. Parents gifted with rare abilities are often humiliated at observing the painful dullness which is apparent in their offspring, while those who are sound in constitution and powerful in frame, are but rarely disquieted by the sickliness of their children. The sturdy grenadiers of Frederick William I., married to wives of surpassing stature, were the progenitors of a population which still supplies the most imposing guardsmen of the German Emperor. Thus we find that in the vast majority of cases physical form is bequeathed from sire to son; and, inasmuch as athletic exercises are well qualified to develop the manly graces, they have a material influence on the improvement of our race. I feel persuaded that if every youth on attaining man's estate, and to a certain extent every woman also, were compelled to take just so much exercise as would call out the physical resources latent within them, the gain to our national health would be something marvelous. Scrofula, consumption, insanity and other hereditary diseases, which are holding each succeeding generation in a firm grip, would be sensibly diminished, while a far healthier tone would pervade public morals. A sound mind in a sound body requires other recreations than those supplied by the casino and the music-hall.

Dr. Morgan in his investigation on this subject, further states: "In examining lives for insurance companies and at other times, I constantly find that though a chest may measure upwards of forty inches in circum-

ference, it is not the storehouse of constitutional vigor which its possessor fondly imagines; the diaphragm encroaches upon its boundaries, the lung tissue is wanting in elasticity, while the walls of the chest are padded with cellular and adipose tissue to as great an extent as the rest of the system. Had the physical training of such an one been judiciously conducted at the time when his bones were still pliant, he might have been moulded into a strong man. But his muscular education was cruelly neglected, and hence it is no subject for surprise that we should often learn from his own lips that his apparent strength is deception; that his constitution demands much nursing and care; the slightest exposure to draught is followed by a painful attack of rheumatism; a whiff of cold air touches his bronchial tubes; that he must be careful in what he eats, drinks and avoids; he is a martyr to various dyspeptic disturbances; he has long been compelled to forego his beer; and champagne, unless very dry, must be well-nigh eschewed. After these observations, it need excite no surprise to hear that such a being is to all intents and purposes an old man at the age of forty. The suppleness of his limbs is already on the wane, he walks perhaps with a certain dignity of carriage, but his action is decidedly stiff. When men like these (often possessed of more wealth than they have been educated to spend) are advised to try the effect of an entire change of habit, to retire from their counting-houses, lead an active life, and so endeavor to arrest those destructive changes which, from want of exercise, are assailing their frames, it is usual to hear that holidays are irksome; that as they have never been trained to enjoy the pleasures of the country, such an existence would be utterly distasteful to them, and time would hang heavy on their hands."

Examples such as these should serve as warnings to a numerous class of business men. In youth and in early manhood their lives are often needlessly sedentary and inactive; it is not therefore surprising that pursuits and recreations which if periodically practiced from boyhood are well calculated to prolong existence, should, when thus tardily wooed in later years, refuse to smile on the evening of life.

The question, then, which naturally suggests itself, is this: "What manner of man is likely to possess a maximum amount of strength and endurance?" In the British army, experience has proved that soldiers whose height ranges from five feet seven to five feet nine are, on the whole, those best qualified to stand the privations and fatigues incidental to a hard campaign. Privates, however, are usually recruited from among classes of the population who from their earliest years are compelled to earn their livelihood by the labor of their hands; and though in such persons the frame is usually well developed, and the chest wide

and deep, still their laborious occupation tends somewhat to check upward growth; hence on an average they are not so tall as youths who are more delicately nurtured. From inquiries made by Dr. Morgan, regarding the height and weight of some of the old oarsmen as well as from observations on others in the same rank of life, who from their physique seemed peculiarly fitted to stand a severe course of training, he concludes that for universitymen at the age of twenty, five feet ten may be looked upon as the perfection of height, while the weight proportioned to that height will probably be 168 pounds. For every additional inch in height we should require about six or seven pounds in weight, if strength is to be commensurate; while for every inch below five feet ten, some five or six pounds less of weight will fairly represent what the bulk should be. If the weight exceed this limit by many pounds, such excess is probably due to the presence of abnormal fat. By immersing in a bath accurate copies of some of the most celebrated ancient statues (which we have every reason to believe were modeled from the life), such as the "Dying Gladiator," the "Theseus" and the bronze "Hercules" in the British museum, and ascertaining the quantity of water displaced, Mr. Brent succeeded in showing what would be the weight of a man similarly proportioned to these well known works of art. From the information here supplied, it would appear that a "Dying Gladiator" would, in the flesh, have weighed 179 pounds, his height being five feet ten; the "Theseus" and the "Hercules" both also measuring five feet ten, weighing respectively 193 pounds and 222 pounds. Men as muscular as these models of the sculptor are occasionally met with in the present day. Dr. Chambers remarks that the greatest muscular development without obesity which he had been able to discover, is in the instance of Parkins, the famous Cornish wrestler, whose ordinary weight in his clothes was 235 pounds, his height being six feet.

Dr. Morgan is disposed to fix upon twenty-five as the age at which the human frame and its tissues reach their acme of development. It may be laid down as a rule subject to very few exceptions, that after this age increase of weight does not represent additional power, but indicates rather the growing accumulation of a useless and unprofitable burden. When, therefore, we hear of a man who at twenty years of age weighed 168 pounds, and in after life inclining to corpulency has reached the abnormal weight of 240 or 250 pounds, we must not consider him proportionately stronger; on the contrary he should rather excite our pity and commiseration, the seventy or eighty pounds distributed over his body being composed wholly of adipose tissue. He is thus as completely enveloped in blubber as though he were a whale or a seal.

During the last few years the whole question of national physique has assumed new and momentous proportions. In the late continental war, the most striking point of contrast between the two combatants was the difference in strength between the individual soldiers of which the hostile armies consisted.

The stamina of the German troops as exhibited in the rapidity and length of their marches, and their endurance under trying exposure, contributed as much to their marvelous success as did the skill displayed by their generals.

War, in its bearing on national health, is by no means an unmitigated evil; it exacts a heavy penalty of blood, but the weakly are killed off and those who survive usually derive great benefit from their enforced exposure and hardships.

On the return of the German troops to their Fatherland after the siege of Paris, the change in their appearance has been described by eye-witnesses as truly remarkable. Half-developed youths were transformed into bearded and robust soldiers; puny and delicate men hardened into vigorous health.

There is much in the present day which is calculated to impress upon the mind of all thoughtful and patriotic men, the importance of directing more attention to the subject of physical education. At no time and in no place could every useful variety of exercise be more advantageously carried out than at our colleges and universities. Without in any way detracting from the educational value of such institutions of learning, they might, for the class by which they are frequented, serve as valuable national gymnasia; colleges for training the mind and also for the development of physical vigor. Such exercise should constitute a regular part of the duties of such institutions, and should, moreover, be made compulsory. The very young men who are in most need of physical development, are the ones who come strongly fortified with petitions to be excused from the very exercises which their feeble condition most loudly calls for. Our young men should surely be compelled to find time to cultivate those exercises which Cicero and Cæsar, and some of the most studious among the ancient and modern philosophers considered necessary, and contrived to prosecute in the midst of their studies and affairs.

If the gymnasium is deserted because it calls for too much effort, a generous government has placed within the reach of all our leading institutions a mode of instruction which combines at once mental and physical culture. The military drill is not too severe for the weakest of our college lads. It gives them one hour's honest exercise, which will usually suffice for the brain-worker, producing prompt reaction without

a sense of exhaustion. It expands the chest, gives a manly carriage and upright form, carrying with it, almost imperceptibly to the student, those habits of obedience and discipline, which make young men better citizens in after life.

A free country can certainly have few better guarantees for its liberties than that its educated men should receive such instruction. The recent extension of the system from twenty to thirty colleges goes far to prove its usefulness, and if judiciously continued must certainly prove a great advantage to the nation at large.

INTER-ACADEMIC COMPETITIVE EXAMINATIONS.

By Principal GEORGE R. CUTTING, A. M.,
of Waterville Union School.

In our brief treatment of this important subject, we shall regard it as self-evident that *some* system of examinations is an essential feature in the grading of the academy. Moreover, it is equally an axiom with the majority of live teachers, that a well-ordered competition is a potent lever in the successful maintenance of that enthusiasm, so essential in the academy. Study for the mere love of it, is a correct principle and a plausible theory; but, practically, it is not far-reaching enough to embrace the mass of academical students. Incentives of various kinds must be devised. In the common school we find various systems of rewards of merit; in the live academy there are prize contests for proficiency in the various departments of study and rival literary societies; in the college we note the same competitive methods, carried to the highest extent. The Regents of the University of New York, recognize this principle when they demand preliminary examinations, competitive for a certificate, before a scholar can be admitted to either of the 240 academies and academical departments of union schools under their control. The main query of this paper is: "Why does our Board of Regents guard so carefully the doors of their academies, and then, practically, leave the inside workings to the chance management of these academies themselves?" Why does the State practically cease its scrutiny at the very beginning of the academic work? What does a certificate of graduation mean in the average academy? In some it means two, in others three, in still others (and these are the best), it means four years of consecutive academic work in the sciences, mathematics and languages. A Regents' entrance certificate means something, it means a certain proficiency in English grammar, arithmetic, geography, spelling and penmanship; a standard recognized throughout the State, one universal in its application.

What does a graduation certificate acquired in these same institutions mean? Before one can answer the question, the informant must know the academy, the trustees, the principal. In some academic institutions of our State, it means a standard equal to the best of the land; in others, a certificate resembles, in more than one respect, paper currency devoid of a specie basis.

Outside of the money appropriations to academies, we can see no reason why scholars should not be required to submit to a Regents' examination in algebra as well as in arithmetic; in rhetoric and history as well as in spelling; in philosophy, physiology and chemistry as well as in geography; in grammar universal as well as English grammar. If the Board of Regents should determine the standard in "the fundamentals" — in the introduction to an academy — why not in the essentials of an academic course?

Such examinations, conducted as the preliminary examinations now are, would be a wonderful incentive to academic study.

The institution with which the author of this paper is connected, was established four years ago on the ruins of the previous district schools of the village of Waterville.

Previous teachers had given out the impression that it was immaterial whether or no English grammar and geography were studied. A union school was established; the Regents incorporated an academical department; the Regents' examinations — competitive for a certificate — were introduced; and the last relic of the old-time prejudice against grammar and geography has vanished from the mind of both parent and student. These scholars are now slowly being brought within the Regents' fold, and no scholar of our grammar department deems it proper that he should leave school before gaining this certificate. But when, within the academic fold, we urge them to study rhetoric, history, algebra, geometry, the languages and sciences, not a few, unreasonably, of course, reply: "The Regents don't require us to be examined in those. I have a Regents' certificate. If our State board deemed those studies essential, they would introduce them by competitive examinations, as they now do in grammar, geography," etc. We would pay grateful homage to this governing board of our State, for what they have thus far done in maintaining a high standard of admission to our academies. Will they stop the good work here? With all due respect, we ask, why not supervise a little more directly *inside* the academies? Have examination papers issued in the higher academic studies, such as algebra, physiology, rhetoric, history, etc., and to successful competitors award certificates of a higher grade. These extra examinations would only necessitate extra sets of questions; for the academies could have the competitive contests on the same days, and under the supervision of the same local committees, who now supervise the preliminary examinations. There could be no conflict of duties among the contestants or of time in the hours of holding the examinations, for the same class of scholars would not be competitors for different grades of certificate at the same time. If need be, there could be a local committee of five; instead of three as now, and the two days now consumed each term of

the year would be sufficient for the enlarged sphere of these Regents' examination in all grades proposed.

There will be conservatives who will oppose this as every other proposed innovation, but is not the scheme as feasible as that of conducting the present preliminary examinations, examinations which have done a world of good to the academies of this State? Croakers there will be, too, who will say, as now, that "a Regents' certificate doesn't amount to any thing." Because one government official is faithless to duty, we do not overthrow the whole system of government trusts. And because one principal, with an eye to the financial returns, boosts his scholars over the academic fence, shall we tear down all the fences? No. Teachers, as a class, can be trusted, at least, in their sworn affidavit, and we venture to predict that a series of competitive examinations within the academy would raise the common standard of these institutions; would, by their official prestige, be a healthful incentive to the "floating" students, those who do not deem the higher studies an essential; in short, would place the academic courses of study on as uniform a basis as now characterizes the requirements for admission. Some judicious system of prizes might be instituted, the award being made to the best papers in any subject, or the higher grade certificate might suffice, in itself a prize. If our academies, too, are to instruct common-school teachers, why not subject the scholars in these teachers' classes to the same competitive examinations, as the normal school candidates now are subjected to.

Does the State really know the standard attained in these teachers' classes? Would not inter-academic competitive examinations be a better test, than imagination? Some thorough work is done. It would be of a higher grade, we think, were the candidates obliged to attain the equivalent of a normal school diploma, before public money could be drawn.

THE COMPOSITION OF THE FRENCH LANGUAGE AND SOME PRINCIPLES OF FRENCH ETYMOLOGY.

By Professor HERMAN C. G. BRANDT, A. M.,
of Hamilton College.

The original inhabitants of France belonged to the Celtic race. Cæsar found in Gaul three chief tribes: The Aquitanians in the south, with a slight Iberian admixture; the Belgians in the north, and between these the Gauls proper. Through the influence of the Greek colony Massilia (Marseilles), the Greek language and culture had spread along the southern coast. By the year 51 B. C., Cæsar had brought all Gaul under Roman rule, and it became a part of the empire as Gallia Trans-Alpina.

For 500 years Gaul was Roman, and at the end of that period it was completely Romanized. By that time Rome had introduced civilization in place of barbarism, law and order in place of confusion, centralization in place of petty feuds, broad highways in place of bridle-paths, bridges in place of fords. Her culture, literature and language had superseded the runes and rites of the Druids.

At the beginning of the fifth century the German invasion began. The Burgundians and Goths were the first who gained permanent abodes on the left bank of the Rhine. The Franks, fifty years later, made an end of Roman supremacy. The Merovingian dynasty ruled about 200 years and the Carolingian 300 more, making in all 500 years of German sway and influence. It was in this period that Charlemagne built up that mighty empire, with Roman civilization at its foundation, extending from the Ebro to the Baltic, from the German ocean to Sicily. This underwent disintegration at the treaty of Verdun, in 843; and France, Germany and Italy became separate, independent kingdoms. From this date, we hear first of France and the French language.

With these facts and dates before us, let us inquire into the composition of the French language. Its material is three-fold, coming from three different sources, which are already pointed out. We will first consider the Celtic or Gallic, which Cæsar heard. This was crowded out by the Latin. The conquered substituted the language of the conquerors for their own. This change was not sudden, but gradual, spreading from centers of administration and commerce over the whole country. In the third century Ulpian wrote "the commands of the faith

can be left in any language, not only in Greek or Latin, but also in Punic or Gallic." St. Jerome was in Gaul in the fourth century, and lived among the Treveri. In the preface to his commentary on the Epistle to the Galatians, he says: "The Galatians have their own language, almost identical with that of the Treveri." At Jerome's visit in Gaul, therefore, Gallic must have been still alive. In the middle of the fifth century Lidonius reproaches the Arvernian nobility for a certain roughness in pronunciation of Latin, due to their mother tongue.

Armorica, in the extreme north-west, clings to its speech, and in Bretagne to-day, the Breton is a Celtic dialect almost as pure as the Welsh or Irish. The Celtic words in the literary French are few. Many are doubtful and obscure, owing to the backwardness of Celtic philology. There are about fifty words, half of which occur also in the latest Latin writers and in Spanish, Italian and Provençal. I mention only a few, which we meet also in English.

French *bec*, Middle Latin form *beccus*, English *beak*,

" *lièue*, " *leuca*, " *league*,

" *marne*, (Pliny) *marga*, " *marl*,

" *braies*, " *bracca*, " *breeches*.

"Braies" holds about the same position in French that "breeches" does in English. Both are excellent words, but for some reason are neglected and looked down upon. Since small clothes were lengthened into wide-bottomed trousers, we use no longer "breeches," but the outlandish word "pantaloons," which is deservedly abbreviated by persons who call themselves "gents," into "pants."

The names of two domestic animals are Celtic, *le chat*, the cat, and *le cheval*, the horse. The Celtic counting by 20 still survives in French. In old Fr. 60 was *treiz-vinz*; 70, *triz-vinz-dis*. New. Fr. has only retained *quatrevingt* and *quatre-vingt-dix*.

Celtic influence is very evident in French syntax. It appears in —

"(1.) The difference in the meaning of an adjective, standing before and after a noun.

e. g. *un homme honnête*, a gentleman;
un honnête homme, an honest man.

(2.) In that a noun, which is strictly in the genitive, stands after the governing noun without the preposition. e. g. *hôtel-dieu*.

(3.) In the use of cardinal numbers instead of the ordinal after proper names. e. g. *Henri quatre*."

But French is decidedly a Romanic language. Nine-tenths of all its words are of Latin origin. The particles and pronouns, without which we hardly form the simplest sentence, are Latin. So are the numerals, cardinal and ordinal, and the great bulk of verbs, nouns and adjectives.

The third element is the German, or rather Germanic. The German

tribes who invaded Gaul and ruled over it for five centuries, spoke German dialects but not German. These dialects were Gothic, Burgundian and Frankish, all three closely related. The Gothic is the oldest and purest, preserved to us in Ulfila's Bible translation. Burgundian approaches Gothic, while Frankish, under the Carlovingian reign, rather approaches Old High German. But Frankish, the most prominent of the three dialects, though the language of the ruling race, was not the ruling language by any means. Latin was used by the State, the Church and by scholars. The nobility and the authorities would not condescend to speak the Romanic of the common people, and the latter scorned to use the language of their oppressors. Latin was for a time the common ground on which they met. Yet the Frankish gradually lost its identity and was embodied in the Romanic speech. Exactly when it disappeared we cannot tell. We know that Charlemagne clung to it and cherished it; and his son Louis on his death bed, to frighten away the evil spirits, cried out in German, *Huz! Huz!* From the end of the 9th century the celebrated "Ludwig's leich" is still extant, a eulogy of Louis III. on his victory over the Normans in 881.

Diez estimates the Germanic words in all the Romanic dialects to be 950 in number; 300 of these are common to all, 450 peculiar to French, 140 to Italian, 50 to Spanish and Portuguese. French, then, claims 750 words of Germanic origin. I give a few examples from different classes of words:

In military concerns, the word *guerre* itself is Germanic, being the Gothic *werro*, war.

German, <i>metzgan</i> (to butcher),	French, <i>massacre</i> ,
" <i>schaarwacht</i> ,	" <i>echauguette</i> ,
" <i>habersack</i> ,	" <i>havresac</i> ,
" <i>bolwerk</i> ,	" <i>boulevard</i> .

Terms in law and State affairs are numerous. e. g.

French, *feud*, German, *fehde*, English, *feud*.

Terms in navigation. e. g.

German, <i>hafen</i> ,	French, <i>havre</i> ,
Dutch, <i>sloop</i> ,	" <i>chaloupe</i> ,
" <i>cajuit</i> ,	" <i>cajute</i> ,
Ag., <i>steorbord</i> ,	" <i>tribord</i> ,
O. G., <i>heribergo</i> ,	" <i>auberge</i> .

The names of the points of the compass are German:

nord, *est*, *sud*, *ouest*.

Names of animals:

German, <i>Reinhart</i> ,	French, <i>renard</i> ,
" <i>möwe</i> ,	" <i>mouette</i> .

Abstract nouns. e. g. German, *hast*, French, *hâte*.

A second influx of Germanic words occurred during the eighth and ninth centuries, by the landing and the settlement of the Normans on the northern coast of France. The readiness and willingness with which these adventurers and pirates laid aside their own language and customs, and the eagerness with which they adopted those of the Franks, are surprising. Their influence upon French was not great. They increased the vocabulary of navigation, already German, and modified French pronunciation. It was the French as spoken by them, Norman French, that was embodied in the English language, when the Normans conquered England in the eleventh century.

The Greek and Arabic elements, which are quite strong in Italian and Spanish, are very meager in French.

Not counting the words which are cognate in Latin and Greek, and those which supply the modern scientific vocabulary, there are about sixty Greek words (according to Diez) introduced since the crusades. e. g.

Greek, <i>παδίον</i> ,	French, <i>page</i> ,
“ <i>μύσταξ</i> ,	“ <i>moustache</i> ,
“ <i>πέταλον</i> ,	“ <i>poêle</i> (English canopy),
“ <i>σμέρις</i> ,	“ <i>emeril</i> ,
“ <i>σειρήν</i> ,	“ <i>serin</i> (finch).

Three common Arabic words are : *magasin*, *alcôve*, *assassin*.

The oldest name of the language of Gaul or France, that is recorded, is “*lingua gallica*” used by the late Latin historians. In the Breton dialect it is still called “*gallek*” and a Frenchman is a “*Gall*.”

“*Lingna Fransica*, *francica* or *Franca*” was at first the name of Frankish only. When Frankish died out, the language of the north inherited this name, called now, “*langue française*.” So the very name French is Germanic. In contrast to the *langue d’oc* it was called *langue d’oil*. It is from this *langue d’oil*, the dialect of Northern France, of the Isle de France (or Paris) that modern French directly sprang. It existed by the side of the Provençal during the middle ages. It was inferior in the flexibility, refinement and polish which the Troubadours gave to their dialect. Yet it gained the supremacy over the *langue d’oc*, and in the year 1539 King Francis I. commanded that all the decrees and laws should be published in the *langue française*, as it has ever since been called. It is from this date, that, what we call French now, has been the language of all France.

Though French has a very strong Germanic element, stronger than any sister language, it is decidedly a Romanic dialect. We may expect to find ninety-nine out of a hundred, of Latin origin. But we may not expect to trace all these to classical Latin, that of Horace and Virgil, Cicero and Tacitus. Nor must we understand by Latin merely the written language, as we find it in the inscriptions, laws and the less

classical literature. We must go back to the broad foundation of popular speech. The language in which the classics of any nation are written, is the crystallization of the language of the people.

Diez has collected about 600 words which are, most of them, designated by the classical writers themselves as "*vocabula rustica, vulgaria or sordida*." Some of them we can now judge to have been inelegant and unclassical. All these words have their derivatives in the Romanic dialects and consequently in French. e. g.

Adjutare, anteclassical and postol. French, *aider*: *belare* for *balare*, French, *bêler*, English, bleat: *caballus*, of Celtic origin, French, *cheval*, taking the place of classical *equus*; *duellum*, obsolete for *bellum*, French, *dul*: *gluto* unclassical, French *gluton*.

French inherited Latin in still another form, viz.: Middle Latin, as it existed in the early portion of the middle ages, till the death of Charlemagne. In this period both classical and popular Latin had undergone many changes in form and meaning; and the words thus modified entered into the Romanic dialects. Du Cange estimates their number to be about 800 in French.

ML, *cabellarius* (from *caballus*), French, *chevalier*.

" *capitanus*, French, *capitaine*.

Classical "infans," a child unable to speak, meant in ML. *puer* and *puella*, which meaning French accepted in *enfant*. Cl. *quercus* was corrupted into "casnus," which alone accounts for French *chêne*.

ML. *tructa*, French *truite* (English trout).

In ML. *causa* was used for *res* and furnished French *chase*.

ML. *barus*, a free man, French, *baron*.

There is still another class of words, derived from the Latin, which remains to be considered, viz.: of those words which have been introduced into French, as into every modern language, since the revival of classical learning. Both Latin and Greek form the reservoir from which modern languages draw in order to supply the demands made upon them by the advance in knowledge and civilization. These words are little changed in form, while accent has shifted. They are not at all subject to the laws of derivation, which govern the early body of the language. There are three signs by which we can readily distinguish an old word from a modern:

(a.) The preservation of the original accent.

(b.) The loss of unaccented vowels.

(c.) The loss of consonants, generally made good by a modification of the vowel before it, indicated by an accent. e. g.

French *frêle* comes from *fragilis*. It has preserved the accent, has lost unaccented vowels, and the consonant g indicated by the circumflex on the preceding vowel.

While French *fragile*, from the same L. *fragilis*, has shifted the accent, and has not the other characteristics of *frêle*. *Père* from *pater* is old, *paternité* — new: *acheter* (old) and *accepter* (new), come both from *acceptare*.

Employer (old) and *impliquer* (new) both from *implicare*.

Façon (old) and *faction* (new) from *factio*.

French *frêle* and *fragile* point to English *frail* and *fragile*, which are representatives of two classes in English, and *analogous* to the French. *Frail* is the old word introduced as Norman French, *fragile* is modern.

We are now to inquire, to what laws and perhaps accidents words are subject in their transformation from Latin into French.

Taking Latin *anima*, how did it become French *âme*? Or starting with French *espèce*, how can we trace it back to Latin *species*?

It is these questions etymology must answer. It is necessary, beginning with Latin vowels and consonants, to follow them in their transition; and after they have become French, to see what changes their influence upon one another may bring about, accident may add and euphony require.

In Latin vowels, accent and quantity are of great moment. The accented long and short vowels either remain unchanged or if they change, it happens according to fixed rules; while the unaccented, short, baffle all classification, when they are not dropped altogether. Let us take the first example, *anima*. The first *a* is accented short, and remains; *i* unaccented, short, is dropped. Final *a* unaccented, short, becomes silent as sign of the feminine gender. We have now *an'me*, which really occurs in Old Fr. Later also *n* disappeared, a received circumflex and length and we have modern Fr. *âme*.

A striking transition is that of *ē* and *i* accented into *oi*; e. g. *me* — *moi*; *te* — *toi*; *habere* — *avoir*; *serus* — *soir*; *digitus* — *doigt*; of *ē* into *ie*; e. g. *bene* — *bien*; *mel* — *miel*; *tent* — *tient*; *venit* — *vient*.

There is a strong aversion to the hiatus in the Romanic dialects. It was avoided in three ways:

(1.) By the interposition of a consonant, commonly *v* and *j*. e. g. *Pleuvor* from *pluere*.

(2.) By elision. e. g. *Tamdiu* — *tandis*.

(3.) By attraction of the first vowel of a hiatus by the preceding syllable. e. g. *Gloria* — *gloire*; *materia* — *matière*; *corium* — *cuir*.

In this way arose the *l* and *n* mouillé. e. g. *Familia* — *famille*; *folium* — *feuille*. A hiatus, that would arise by composition, is prevented by elision. e. g. *de* — *ab* — *ante* — *devant*.

As to consonants, we observe in general, if three occur together either originally or by loss of vowels, the middle one is dropped, when it is a mute or *f*. e. g.

Sanctus — *saint*; *comptare* — *conter*; *l* before another consonant dissolves into *u*. e. g. *calidus* — *chaud*; *falsus* — *faux*.

Consonants are firmest at the beginning of words. In the middle they generally disappear and give length and accent to the preceding vowel. e. g. *respondeo* — *répondre*; *mater* — *mère*, etc. Final consonants are dropped without influencing the word.

A remarkable phenomenon is the prefixing of *e* to *st*, *sc*, *sp*. e. g. *Spatium* — *espace*; *sperare* — *espérer*; *species* — *espèce*. The tendency to drop *s* and *t*, however, affected these words. e. g. *stabulum* became first *estable* and then *étale*; *species* (spice) first *espice* and then *épice*. Only so much about Latin vowels and consonants.

As to the French vowels and consonants, I must be brief and general. *E muet* is peculiar. It was pronounced till after the Norman conquest of England, as it was then carried into English. (We find it in Chaucer.) It is still pronounced and reckoned as a syllable in French poetry. It influences greatly the preceding vowels and consonants. Because it represents *L. a* in feminine vowels and adjectives, it became the sign of the feminine gender in French.

Diphthongs proper are very few in French. The more common are *oi*, *ui*, *ie*, in *moi*, *suis*, *piéd*. Vowel combinations, however, are abundant, representing a single sound. They are for the eye merely and orthographical, precious bricàbrac in historic spelling.

We come next to the system of inflection. This underwent great simplification and decomposition. The endings of nouns and adjectives disappeared, all except two, viz.: *e* (Latin *a*) as sign of the feminine, and *s* as sign of the plural.

As to genders, the neuter was lost entirely. As to cases, having lost their endings they were replaced by the prepositions *de* and *à* before the nouns.

Here a difficult question presents itself. From which case or cases did the French noun take its form? Take Fr. *conte* and from which case of Latin *comes* is it derived? Not from the nominative, for it would not account for the *t* in *conte*. Besides, both in Latin and Greek, the noun has not its most pure and primitive form in the nominative. The best authorities have settled upon the accusative, as the ground form of all Romanic nouns. They agree, also, that the *s* of the accusative and nominative plural in the Latin declensions furnished the *s* for the general plural sign in French. The loss of all the other case-endings was also partly made good by the use of the article. This is derived from *ille*, of which either the first syllable was taken on account of its accent, or the second on account of the case-ending (in French the second). Its office was at first merely demonstrative.

The derivation of the adjective is simple, and similar to that of the

noun. As neuter-nouns were classed either with the masculine or the feminine, there was no use of the neuter adjective. *Bona* gives *bonne*, *bonus* gives *bon* and *bonas* gives *bonos*, *bons* the plural.

The comparison of adjectives by means of adverbs had already gained ground in Latin, and it prevailed entirely in the derivative languages. There is one innovation, viz., the use of the comparative, preceded by the article, in place of the superlative. This extends even to the irregularly compared adjectives. *Bonus*, *melior*, *optimus*, became now *bon*, *meilleur*, *le meilleur* instead of *optime*.

In the adverb the ending "ment" is striking. It comes from the ablative *mente*. In *devota mente*, *placida mente*, and the rather unclassical *parimente* and *alia mente*, the noun lost its separate force as noun and became a suffix to the adjective. This gave rise to its use as adverbial ending attached to any adjective.

The most interesting and important part of French etymology is the verb and its inflection, which we can treat only very generally now in conclusion.

While the tendency in every thing else was towards simplicity, in the verb, it was toward complication and circumlocution. Of the Latin tenses, the present, imperfect and perfect active appear again in French present, imperfect and past definite. e. g. *canto* — *chante*; *cantabam* — *chantais*; *cantavi* — *chantai*. The French imperfect subjunctive sprang from the Latin pluperfect subjunctive. e. g. *Chantasse*, from *cantassem*, *finisse* from *finissem*. The compound tenses of the active and the whole passive are formed by means of auxiliary verbs and the past participle. If we consider that even Cicero could say, *satisdictum habeo* instead of *dixi*, *habeo cognitum* instead of *cogonovi*; that even in Latin and Greek *esse* and *εἶναι* were used in the passive voice, then, it is not surprising, that this periphrastic method prevailed in all the Romanic dialects and supplanted tenses, that became so similar in form by phonetic decay as to be confounded, and so similar in meaning that neither was fit to survive.

In the past participle the idea of time was lost, as it was expressed distinctly in the auxiliary verb. Hence the peculiar fitness of the past participle for the passive voice.

Phonetic decay is so aggressive and powerful that French is remarkable for having preserved so many simple terms intact; but what is more remarkable still, is, that it should have developed two new tenses. The future and the conditional are the fruits of modern growth. They are formed by the infinitive and *avoir*, *aimerai* is *aimer* — *ai*, "to love I have," "am to love." This composition of the future was first discovered by an Italian grammarian in 1492, and is fully established by all authorities.

The conditional was originally *aimer* — *avais*, so called, because the idea of condition and possibility is prominent in it. Its meaning approaches rather the imperfect subjunctive than indicative. The French conjugation in *er* corresponds to the Latin in *āre*, but has attracted also many verbs from the three other Latin conjugations.

The French in *ir* covers the Latin fourth. Its peculiarity is the *is* in *finissant* and *finissais*, which has its origin in the *se* of Latin inchoative verbs.

The French conjugation in *avoir* includes only the compounds of *capere*, in which *e* becomes *oi*. They are classed by many as irregular verbs, and properly.

The French fourth in *re*, has preserved all the Latin infinitive endings. e. g. *Répondre* from *respondere*, *vendre*, from *vendere*.

INSTRUCTION IN VOCAL MUSIC IN SCHOOLS.

By Principal ISAAC O. BEST, A. M.,
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The fifteen minutes allowed for the discussion of such a theme as vocal music in our schools, forbids introduction or explanation. You will, therefore, excuse me if I at once and abruptly state the aim and scope of this paper, and then proceed with the argument.

It would not be proper for me to attempt to speak of the *methods of instruction in vocal music*, for only a trained teacher can speak with authority here, and I am not even an amateur in music. I must content myself with speaking rather of the *advantages* of such instruction. Nor does the time allotted permit an exhaustive discussion of this theme. From the many thoughts to which attention might be called, I select only three, viz.:

- 1st. Vocal music as a study.
- 2d. Vocal music as an educational force.
- 3d. Vocal music as a disciplinary agency.

I. Of the first, vocal music as a study, much misapprehension prevails. It is thought, by many, to be about worthless, and is generally considered only admissible as a source of pleasure—a sort of by-play to enliven the routine of school. But such is not the case. Music, as a study, ranks with other studies in every respect. Is there utility in it? More than in algebra or geography. A man or woman who sings well is able, in any community, to earn many an honest penny for self or charity which others cannot. Is there intellectual culture in it? Let any one who doubts, watch a skillful teacher exercising a class. If he does not find the different faculties of the mind called into active and rapid play, he must be dull, indeed. Is there opportunity for development of thought? More than in the natural sciences; for the science of music is exact and graded from simplest principles to most profound, so that it may be pursued with advantage as far as time and opportunity permit.

Hence, as a means of mental discipline, vocal music, when taught as it should be, ranks well up in the curriculum of useful studies. Add to this the benefit to the voice, the direct effect upon the æsthetic nature, and the great amount of pleasure derived from the knowledge as well

as practice of music, and we have sufficient ground to claim for it no mean place in our schools.

Considering utility alone it ranks with other studies accounted very important.

II. But we step on higher ground when we consider vocal music as an educational force.

The power of music, and especially of song over the human soul, has ever been acknowledged. Shakspeare's celebrated passage, "The man that hath no music," etc., only puts into epigrammatic form the idea which the world has cherished through the ages. In the literature of the past we find fables of this power as well as facts — that solid walls of brass sprang up around Thebes; that trees tore their twining roots from rugged mountain-sides to follow; that wild beasts, gentle and savage, stopped in flight and pursuit, tamed and calmed by the magic influence of song; and that even the cruel, callous-hearted keeper of the portals of Hades could not resist its charms.

What formed the Hebrew character, and still keeps it so peculiar and strong? Not the Mosaic code of laws merely, for since Jerusalem was destroyed by Titus those laws have nowhere been enforced. But the Jews have nowhere been forbidden to sing; and they have sung the Lord's songs in many a strange land — sorrowfully always, in despair often, sometimes forced by the taunting tyranny of their captors, yet never without enthusiasm. And those songs — the grandest, sublimest psalter of the ages — not only made them a peculiar people, but have kept them so, though ground under the heel of persecution for centuries.

How much did the pean of the Greeks have to do with their invincibility? Did it not fight, and die away when the last man fell at Thermopylae? fight and win at Marathon?

Would Luther have won Germany to the Reformation, if he had not given to the people his hymns? They sang themselves out of superstitious subserviency to Rome into religious liberty.

But we have proof nearer home of the wonderful influence of song over the souls of men. Sankey, Bliss, and others, are teaching us that the deepest chords of feeling tremble at the touch of melody, and that no audience is too vast or too mixed to be thrilled, melted and inspired by song.

This power of song to affect the hearts of men makes it especially useful as an educational force. 'Properly employed, it is most effectual in inspiring high and noble impulses, and in softening and refining character.

It is not pertinent here to discuss the question whether music itself, as an art, has a good or bad effect upon the moral nature. Perhaps music, and all art, has no moral influence, but is only the medium through

which such influence is exerted, and its power consists in predisposing the mind and heart to receive impressions more readily. However this may be, there can be no controversy as to its power, and the question before us is simply this: Shall this power be utilized in our schools as an educational force? Failure to use it seems to me most deplorable in its results. Almost every young person has a taste for song. This taste, if not provided with wholesome and pure songs, will turn to those which are empty and vicious. And there is a vast store of such minstrelsy. The muses, like the other deities of the ancients, are given to immorality and lewdness; and certainly they have inspired men to couple faultless rhythm and bewitching melody with most debasing thoughts and vulgar sentiments. All our youth are, more or less, subjected to the influence of this vicious minstrelsy, and unless taught a nobler and purer will be debased by it. It is, therefore, a necessary safeguard against vice that our youth be taught a pure psalmody — songs that will inspire noble and virtuous thoughts and impulses. But when and where? There can be but one answer. When and where it can be done most successfully, and is most needed — and that is at school, between the ages of twelve and twenty.

Besides this moral education derived from singing such songs as would be taught in our schools, we may speak more fully of the æsthetic culture thus obtained. If it refines and elevates our taste to study beautiful pictures, to gaze upon fine paintings and statuary; if familiarity with that which is tender, exquisite or grand, insensibly assimilates our character to it, then is there nothing better calculated to refine our nature than singing, which acts upon us, not through our senses alone, but also through the sentiments embodied in the songs.

We may go still further and show that there is no better way of teaching patriotism, bravery, truth and honor.

Therefore, teach the young to sing; fill their minds full of such words and thoughts as the most stirring and instructive melodies will inspire. Educate in them a taste for such minstrelsy, and you not only inoculate them with a moral vaccine against the small-pox of vicious songs, but also refine and ennoble them.

III. Upon the third point, vocal music as a disciplinary agency, I have not time to say all that I would like to say.

The spirit of song is the spirit of liberty, yet it is the spirit of order as well. Harmony, measure, regularity are its distinguishing features, yet so related to freedom of expression and sentiment as not to cultivate subserviency of disposition. Hence its influence upon character is two-fold — it conduces to freedom and discipline. There would be little pleasure in singing were not the songs sung of an inspiring character — filled with sentiments of liberty, love, and patriotism; yet to

render them well necessitates a surrender of individuality, the subjection of the will to law and order. This is discipline, a self-discipline to which men willingly submit.

If now we apply this fact to school discipline, we shall find that the effect of singing upon the morale, as well as the morals of a school, is excellent. Those certainly underestimate its worth who would eject the music teacher from the school and make no provision for a thorough and continued course of instruction in vocal music.

Music or the rod, songs or sobs, order now by minstrelsy or forced by severity: such is the choice to be made, and my experience proves that theory and fact are at one in this matter. Nor need we look far for the reason. Obedience, to be worth any thing, must be cheerful; order without happiness is tyrannical. Any thing, therefore, which produces a contented submission to just rules, is most desirable as a disciplinary agency.

Now, come with me to any school-room at the opening hour. See, among the scholars, some with pouting lips, some with faces set in sullen defiance, others listlessly indifferent — all such ready, at any moment, to rebel. To begin work with them in these moods is simply to invite insubordination. Instead of attempting it, announce a song, and watch those faces as the singing goes on. Gradually the pouting lips are parted; the look of sullen defiance fades; the listless expression gives place to animation; and the whole atmosphere is changed. Let this matter be carefully investigated, and I have no doubt that it will be found that schools in which singing is systematically and generally taught have an *esprit de corps* far beyond other schools. There may not be stricter obedience, but it will be more cheerful; and whatever irregularities may occur will be the offspring of exuberance, not viciousness of disposition.

This disciplinary influence of vocal music, in my opinion, places it first in importance of all the branches taught in our schools, and this, not because it is intrinsically superior to them, but because it creates an atmosphere in which they are more successfully pursued. Mathematics, classics, science, each gives a peculiar culture, each is excellent in its own sphere to develop and strengthen the mind, to enlighten and broaden the understanding; but by none of them can the higher nature be so readily and fully reached as by singing. Not one of them can be dispensed with. They make men of weight and power, and influence, but they do not so directly tend to develop the qualities that make men social, gentle, honest, and true, as does music.

What a charming, blessed feature of home-life is music! How it enhances social enjoyment! On what strong pinions does it bear up towards God's religious fervor! Which of all the other branches taught

in our schools will do these things? And are they not worth considering? Can our schools do a better thing than to teach all our youth that which will light up their lives with pleasure, and be a joy and blessing to them all their days?

In view of all that has been said, I cannot think of any thing that the State has more right to do, or can better afford, than to teach all its youth to sing; to store their memories with songs of patriotism and purity: songs in which bravery, truth, honor and unselfishness are applauded: songs that they can take with them into society and their homes, into their fields and workshops, into every profession and avocation: songs that they cannot sing and be false and mean and cowardly: songs that will tend to recall them, if they fall, to manliness and God.

Such is the demand made upon us for a pure minstrelsy. It conduces to individual development and the happiness of families; it elevates and enlivens social intercourse; it purifies public morals; it creates and maintains a noble national character; hence, it claims, with absolute right, a prominent place among the studies taught in our schools.

CYPRIOTE ANTIQUITIES AND INSCRIPTIONS.

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A year ago a paper was presented by me to the Convocation on the Cypriote Inscriptions, which gave a sketch of the process of decipherment, the leading principles of the writing, and an analysis of the more important inscriptions, with translations. Much of the matter was entirely new, and most of it then, for the first time, appeared in the English language. Since the reading of that paper, the knowledge of the Cypriote language and writing has not ceased to be progressive. New siftings of the former material have been made, new material has been discovered from time to time, and many things recorded by ancient grammarians and lexicographers, long supposed to be doubtful or erroneous, have been re-examined in the new light and proved to be facts.

It is not the purpose of this article to record all the advancements made in Cypriote decipherment during the present year; many of them, indeed, are of interest only to the decipherer or to the student of Greek dialects, especially the earliest forms of the language. But it is especially worthy of note that by the labors of Dr. H. L. Ahrens of the gymnasium at Hanover, already famous as a Greek dialectologue, the subject has been very materially helped forward, and that, too, in the very necessary direction in which only such a learned dialect-scholar could help it on. His work, indeed, is not without sundry material errors, from which it would have been free, had the author had at command more accurate sources for his texts, and possessed a better knowledge of the original monuments. The nature of his work is such that a synopsis of it would hardly be appropriate here; but a few things deserve mention. He has vastly improved upon former readings of the numerals in the famous Bronze Tablet of Dali, has given several better translations of parts, and has read with probable correctness one unknown character. He has also apparently relieved the syllabary from one seeming anomaly, by showing with some probability that what Deecke, Siegismund and myself took to be the double consonant syllable *æ*, (*ζε* or *ζη*), is the old Greek *sampi*, with the power of *she*, the Semitic *shin*.

The writer, within the past year, has had the privilege of inspecting the originals of nearly all the known Cypriote inscriptions, as well as of

seeing nearly all the known collections of Cypriote antiquities. He has thus been enabled to gather much new material, to make many corrections in former publications, to settle former acute conjectures upon a firm basis of fact, and to amend considerably the syllabary; as well as to trace certain ideas in the forms of the characters, which will render future decipherment easier and throw much light upon the whole system. He would also express his indebtedness in these respects to the late Dr. Justus Siegmund of Strassburg, with whom he has held a delightful and active correspondence for a year, giving and receiving not a few helpful suggestions; with whom also he had anticipated a pleasant and profitable oral comparison of notes in Beirut; but the steamer by which Dr. Siegmund was expected, brought the terrible news of his death — caused by his falling down a shaft in the village of Agios Tychon, near ancient Amathus, and striking his head against the side of a rock tomb — the same from which General di Cesnola obtained a splendid sarcophagus, now the property of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York city. Dr. Siegmund had endeared himself to all who knew him in Cyprus, and his loss was sincerely mourned in that land of strangers. He was buried with great honor and grief, in the Greek church at Limassol.

As most of the new matter above referred to falls rather within the province of philological discussion than of a paper to be laid before the Convocation, the rest of this communication will be confined to subjects of more general interest, and will state some of the writer's own observations and discoveries, keeping rather the order of narrative than furnishing a systematized digest; and some indulgence is asked for the necessary frequent use of the first person.

Arriving in London late in September last, I was received with great kindness by Dr. Samuel Birch, of the British Museum, by whom I was afforded every facility for studying the Cypriote monuments there deposited. Mr. George Smith, also, of Assyrian note, who first discovered the clue to the Cypriote writing, afforded me every facility in his power. The collection in the British Museum is small; the Cypriote antiquities, though choice, are hardly as numerous as those of a single case in the Cesnola collection in New York, and contain nothing, except the inscriptions, which would be either noticed if added, or missed if taken away from the Cesnola collection. They were mainly obtained by R. H. Lang, late Her Britannic Majesty's consul at Cyprus. The inscriptions are six in number, and all but one extremely valuable. One is the so-called "Naked Archer" inscription of Lang. It is upon a marble stone about six feet high, with a bas-relief figure three and a half feet high, of a naked archer; above which is an inscription of three lines and forty-one characters, not yet deciphered. It is probably the

oldest inscription known, and contains several rare and unknown characters. However, some discoveries made within a couple of months, throw some light upon them. Another is the stone weight found by George Smith in one of his journeys to Nineveh, and is figured in his "Assyrian Discoveries." It contains only two, or perhaps three characters, which are probably initials, symbols or numerals, thus far of no special service. Another is a curiously wrought silver spoon, having a handle fashioned like a swan's neck and head, upon which handle is an inscription, some time ago deciphered, which records that Amys gave it as a votive offering to Athene. Another is on soft stone, one of the first read. It says that "Onasivoikos, the son of Stasivoikos, vowed [it] to [Apollo] Hylates in good fortune." The remaining two need a little more comment. One is that figured in the leading work of Professor Moriz Schmidt, of Jena, but so inaccurately that it defied all attempts to read it. Some characters are wrongly figured; but the especial fault was that the lines which separated the groups of characters and gave the key to the reading, were omitted entirely. Schmidt himself did not attempt to decipher it. I read it with little trouble from the stone, as follows: "Of Cyprocorates [a daughter] am I. He of the people here, my husband, [is] Onasitimos. Diisonidas Tibas am I." It is evidently a tomb-stone inscription; but, while the patronymic character of one word of the person's name is plain, the possibilities of Cypriote writing render it doubtful which word is noun and which is adjective. Since then, Dr. Ahrens, of Hanover, has published a reading based upon Schmidt's faulty figure; which reading, as it involves a faulty character, together with Dr. Ahrens' assumption that the inscription is incomplete, and his conjectural emendation by adding some new words, is quite incorrect. The last of these inscriptions is the famous Bi-lingual of Dali, which has been repeatedly published, and which appeared also in my last year's paper before the Convocation, I was so fortunate as to read three characters in the first line that had hitherto escaped notice, likewise one character in the second line, confirming a conjecture of Deecke, Siegismund and myself, as to the reading of a defective word. I also found traces of another character, and settled, beyond a doubt, the reading in two other places. My discovery added the words "in the year" to the first line, and showed that several previous conjectures, as well as the subsequent conjecture of Dr. Ahrens, who had not seen my work, were wrong. The other matters, though of importance, would require a too disproportionately long space to be particularly explained here. Altogether, they make it necessary to change a little the translation given in my former paper. The translation should read as follows: (1) "In the [fourth] year of King Milkiathon, king of both Citium and Idalium; (2) * * * the latest of

the five intercalary days, the prince [Baalram], the [son] of Abdimilcon set up this statue to Apollo the Amyclæan, because that he met for him his prayers (3) in happy fortune."

The day before I arrived in London, also, a new part of the Transactions of the Society of Biblical Archæology appeared, containing, among other things, an article with three new Cypriote inscriptions. These, however, proved, on examination, to be the same as three of the new Cesnola inscriptions, which I had already published with (as I believe) correct translations. The article in the Transactions, however, was based, in part, upon incorrect copies, and contained correct decipherment of only one word out of all the three inscriptions, and that not for the first time, nor independently. Another article in the same Transactions contained a new and valuable Bi-lingual, Cypriote and Greek, deciphered by M. Demetri Pierides, of Larnaca, in Cyprus. This, with one trifling mistake, was correctly deciphered and read, as I subsequently found on examining the stone in Cyprus.

Another contribution to the subject should be mentioned. Mr. Lang, above-mentioned, had lately published a detailed account of certain coins with Cypriote legends, found by him at Dali, together with a description of the chief temple of ancient Idalium. These were published in the Transactions of the Royal Society of Literature, of which the secretary of the society kindly gave me copies, together with other information.

Proceeding to Paris, I was permitted to handle and examine carefully, at leisure, all the objects in the collection of the late Duc de Luynes, in the Bibliothèque Nationale. It was most gratifying to find that de Luynes' copies had been made with scrupulous accuracy. In the case of the bronze tablet of Dali, nearly every false stroke of the engraver of the tablet was represented on de Luynes' plates; even the holes and corrosion of the bronze were given with marvelous fidelity. Only one defect exists in the copy — the omission of a point between two words in the second line, which does not, in the least, interfere with the reading. The bronze plate is slightly convex in both its surfaces, being twice as thick in the middle as at the edges; and it is very heavy. The bronze club-like implement, perhaps a votive scepter, is also beautifully and correctly figured by de Luynes. The same is true of the numerous coins, though now and then a minor fault appears, disclosed by the advance in Cypriote. The inscription of the votive bronze scepter has been repeatedly published; it states that it was the property "of Athene, the all-powerful ruler of Idalium;" though Dr. Ahrens prefers, I think wrongly, to consider the proper name as a Cypriote form of the name Itone.

In the Louvre the collection of Cypriote objects is large and fine, all

well arranged with Parisian taste. Some of the inscriptions are merely casts of stones still in Cyprus, too large, or too securely fixed in their place to be removed. Some of the characters are very large; a single one often much larger than an entire inscription of the Cesnola collection. I was sorry to observe that several had been faultily represented in the plates of De Vogüés' *Mélanges d'Archéologie Orientale*. These errors need not here be detailed, but their style can be inferred from an example or two. In one case the Cypriote character *ko* is represented as a Greek *omega*. The most unfortunate case occurs with the famous Bi-lingual, which reads: "Karyx am I." The inscription, as represented by de Vogüé, is a little embellished by imagination, and gives an imperfect and even wrong idea of some of the characters, tending, somewhat, to mislead. But one of the characters, in particular, is very wrongly represented so as to read *ti* in his copy, instead of *ka*, as on the stone. Had his copy been correct, this Bi-lingual would have assisted materially in deciphering several of the inscriptions, and perhaps given the clue to the system of writing. As it is, the faulty copy misled decipherers for a long time, and even after the clue was found, it had to be treated as a hindering anomaly. In order to do their fullest service to the study, all the Louvre inscriptions need recopying and republishing.

At Turin I saw the famous "*Tabula Isiaca*," of which mention was made in my former paper, as had been done by former writers. The "*Tabula*" is nearly square, a work of silver inlaid upon a black ground, representing the Egyptian Isis, with numerous other figures and hieroglyphics. On the edge, among other figures, is the reputed Cypriote inscription, which has been well figured by De Luynes. But a very few minutes sufficed to show that the whole is a forgery, and is neither Egyptian nor Cypriote. The detailed reasons for this conclusion cannot here be given, but they admit of no doubt whatever. The "*Tabula*" is merely an interesting and ingenious fabrication a few centuries old, and ought to have been left in the junk-shop to which it went after the sack of Rome in 1525. I was afterwards informed by Gen. di Cesnola that Fabretti, the curator of the Museum of Turin, is of the same opinion, and would, if he could have his own way, remove the "*Tabula Isiaca*" from its glass case in the center of the hall and deposit it amongst the rubbish in the attic. The Cypriote collection in the Museum of Turin, presented by di Cesnola, who is a native of that city, is small, but choice; though it contains nothing of which a duplicate does not appear in New York; except, indeed, one Phœnician inscription containing a few beautiful letters, but otherwise of no special importance.

I next proceeded to Cyprus, where unforeseen circumstances pre-

vented my exploring the island; but many things of the deepest interest met my observation at Larnaca. A detailed account would be premature, for sundry private reasons; but some few things can be mentioned. Among the inscriptions was one upon a pair of gold armillæ found at Curium, weighing 900 grammes, of which inscription I had been shown a copy by Dr. Birch in London. The reading was a little difficult but certain; it is "Of Ethevandros, King of Paplios." A copy of the inscription sent me by Gen. di Cesnola had failed to find me in New York, and did not reach me till after I arrived at Beirut. Besides this intrinsic and historical value, the inscription they bear is valuable for its new variants, being written differently upon each armlet. Among other things they showed me that one of my plates of the Cesnola inscriptions, containing this variant, then undetected, is for that reason figured upside down; the other characters reading one way as well as another. The reading of the armlet inscription is from left to right, like the bulk of the inscriptions from the western part of the island, though contrary to the usual way. I read, also, the inscriptions on some statuettes, votive offerings to Apollo Hylates, which had puzzled Gen. di Cesnola and M. Pierides; and after reading them was told by Gen. di Cesnola that they came from a temple of Apollo Hylates at Curium. They also read from left to right. All these inscriptions contained peculiar and useful variants. I had the good fortune, also, to see an alabaster vase whose inscription I had already published — with entire correctness, as it proved.

In the possession of M. Pierides, also, I saw three new inscriptions, of which, as he intends to publish them himself, I will say nothing further than that the reading of the British Museum stone on my arrival in London, has furnished the key to them all. Also, I saw the Bilingual above referred to, together with an inscription of some note from Pyla, on which last I was able to see that the German decipherers have generally mistaken the word *a. po. lo. ni.*, "to Apollo," for quite another thing. There were several other short inscriptions on stones and small objects, the details of which would here be fatiguing.

The amphoræ found at Cyprus with Greek seals upon their handles, impressed while the clay was still soft, are Rhodian, and usually bear the name of the Rhodian rulers; but this matter has been treated of by Dr. Birch in his book on ancient pottery. These amphoræ were doubtless imported from Rhodes, filled with fruit, oil and wine, as at the present day (though Cyprus has abundance herself), and they are mainly found in the ruins of what must have been the region of warehouses and retail shops near the smaller port of ancient Citium, at the other end from the great salines. For Citium must have had two harbors, a large and a small. Until the discovery of entire amphoræ by di Cesnola,

numerous stamped, broken-off handles were continually dug or ploughed up, and were highly esteemed by European antiquarians. Indeed, M. Ceccaldi, a former French consul, is said to have accumulated quite a deal of money by collecting them. Many of the entire amphoræ are in the collection in New York.

While much of the Greek and Phœnician pottery was doubtless made in Cyprus, the great bulk of the Roman and Greek lamps and other pottery was imported. The Roman lamps of all sorts are precisely like those found so abundantly in Pompeii, and now to be seen in the Museum of Naples. Many have the same maker's name or mark, so that their approximate dates are known. A few lamps, apparently of Phœnician make, bear characters hitherto undeciphered, but resembling both the Greek and the Phœnician letters. Some vases, closely resembling the Etruscan, bear a strange and difficult Greek character, different from any Greek I ever saw. The vases have been called Pelasgic by an expert in pottery, but others, in many respects like them, have been exhumed at Athens, of which a few specimens are preserved in the cabinets of the Syrian Protestant College at Beirût. Other objects of fictile ware and of metal must wait awhile for description. I should not omit to mention a choice collection of objects of ancient Cypriote art in the possession of M. Pierides, mainly gathered about twenty years ago. They are quite rare and worth obtaining for the collection in New York.

Concerning the ruins of ancient Citium, which still abundantly exist about Larnaca, the course of the city wall can still be traced. It did not include much of the site of Larnaca, but extended nearly two miles east and west, and over a mile inland. The southern wall was some distance from the sea, except where it approached the shore, in order to form the two harbors above mentioned. Many of the mounds which bear every indication of covering remarkable ruins, cannot yet be examined, because the land proprietors charge too extortionate a price for the otherwise worthless land. Near the large harbor at the west end is doubtless the site of the royal palace. This has not been excavated, except so far as was done some years since by digging a cellar and a well, in the course of which was discovered the black basalt monolith obelisk of Sargon, which is now at Berlin, and whose Assyrian inscription has been translated and repeatedly published. The hippodrome is clearly discernible, and its shape perfectly well defined. Soundings in some mounds have discovered fine mosaic pavements, which would doubtless reward the excavator. But all around the walls are lines of tombs, the discovery of which evinced great skill on the part of Gen. di Cesnola. Hundreds of these have been examined, and the ground is strewn with fragments of old pottery thus exhumed.

Larnaca stands in great part over several streets of tombs, and now and then an old tomb caves in, in the streets of the city, and discloses sarcophagi and other antiques. Exhumed sarcophagi, indeed, of fine marble, abound in Larnaca, and are used for water troughs and other purposes; while their covers, by hundreds, cover street-gutters or form material for pavements. Now and then, in the walls of the houses and in the curb-stones of the streets, a stone is seen bearing a deeply cut Cypriote character, formed of strokes usually a foot or more in length. These occur also in the Marina or port of Larnaca, fifteen minutes walk from the city proper; and even so far away as its Turkish quarter, at the opposite end of the town. Pieces of columns, jars, steles, capitals and other relics of a bulky sort, are common everywhere. The mysterious objects in the Cesnola collection, the same as those which so puzzled Dr. Schliemann in his Trojan diggings, are found in abundance, but are nothing but *fusioles* or spindle-ends; and are used at the present day by the Cypriote women all over the island. Which suggests the remark that as the living Greek language of the island at the present day, bears considerable analogy to that of the inscriptions, so the customs of the present day preserve many things quite in harmony with the relics of antiquity everywhere discovered. The so-called owl-faces of Schliemann also abound. The grotesque objects, like children's toys, appear to be the insignia of the trade or calling followed by the occupant of the tomb in which they were found.

Of course there are many relics of Venetian times, often occurring in profusion. These are of very various characters, churches, sun-dials, fortifications, arsenals—the latter still often well-stored with stone cannon balls. These last, indeed, I even saw in the salines, near the immense mounds of salt.

Venus is believed by the modern Cypriotes to be a real historical personage. A relic of the worship of Venus Anadyomene is still kept up, in the following style: As the eleventh of June approaches, the boatmen repaint their boats with gay colors, and deck them with ribbons and streamers. On that day, the young girl most noted for beauty is captured, by real or apparent force, and carried out to sea in a boat, followed by the gay squadron. At the proper distance from shore, she is thrown into the sea. As she rises, she is taken out of the water with every demonstration of joy, and carried to the land in the most gaily decorated boat, the others following in procession. She is then crowned queen for the day, honored with homage, and worshiped almost like a goddess. The night following is made hideous with revelry and noise. But, by a strange mixture of ideas, this ceremony is called "*Cataclysmo*," which is Cypriote for "the Flood;" and the inhabitants say that this custom has existed "from the time of Venus."

To return to the Cypriote antiquities, the later collections of di Cesnola show a remarkable mixture of Greek, Assyrian, Phœnician and Egyptian art, quite unique among known relics. Besides those on their way to America, Gen. di Cesnola was obliged, according to the terms of his firman, to send more than eighty boxes of duplicates to the museum at Constantinople, which must be as valuable as any collection outside of America. Of the Cypriote inscriptions which have been for some years at Constantinople, I believe that none are of much value. Two of them are forgeries, the work of a nephew of a Greek bishop in Cyprus. For this imposition he suffered a short imprisonment, but the influence of his uncle prevented his further punishment.

Leaving Cyprus, in the collection of the Syrian Protestant College at Beirut is one inscribed lamp with the hitherto undeciphered characters, but it adds nothing to the previous knowledge.

As to other collections, on a late trip to Jerusalem I saw the collection, at Jaffa, in the possession of one Rosedale, one of the German colonists of a peculiar sect. The collection contained about 1,000 pieces; nothing which has not a duplicate in the collection at New York, except some lamps unfit for exhibition, though those might be duplicated abundantly at Naples or Rome. There was no Cypriote or other inscription in the collection, save the maker's mark on a few lamps. I learned that Rosedale obtained this collection by sending for it to Cyprus, from a Greek native of the island. There is no doubt that they were obtained surreptitiously from di Cesnola's workmen. On my return from Jerusalem I found that the collection was gone; it had been sold to go to England, but to whom I could not learn.

In Jerusalem I saw a small but good collection in the possession of Shapira, whom his reputed Moabite antiquities have rendered notorious. This collection appeared to be composed of the choicest pieces selected from the Jaffa collection. It contained nothing unusual, and Shapira informed me that he only purchased it (he would not say from whom) in order to study the antiquities of Cyprus. I may here say, *en passant*, that Shapira showed me his collection of reputed Moabite antiquities, a few hundred in number, some of which I had already seen figured in a German publication. I saw the collection many times, and examined and handled the objects all I wished; but I cannot believe that a single piece of it is a genuine antique. Yet it must be confessed that the inscriptions are made with much more skill than the clumsy absurdities of which squeezes were sent to America some years ago, and which were so readily detected as forgeries by the American scholars.

Before bringing this paper to a close, I ought to mention that a few days since I received from General di Cesnola squeezes of eight newly-discovered Cypriote inscriptions, more or less complete. He had not

had them in his possession more than a couple of hours, just long enough to make the squeezes hastily before the steamer sailed for Beirût ; but still the squeezes are good and plain. I suspect that they are from the neighborhood of Paphos, and point to a newly-discovered temple of the Paphian Venus, though they read from right to left; the ordinary way, but contrary to the usual style of the western part of the island. They contain not only some new variants, but some peculiar combinations of characters which may help solve some of the old puzzles. Their interest is mainly to the decipherer. I subjoin just one of them as a specimen. It consists of three lines on a box of calcareous stone. I give first the Roman syllables, then the transliteration into Greek characters, followed by the translation.

- (1) *po. ro. to. ti. mo. e. mi. ta. se. pa. pi. a. se. to. i. e.*
- (2) *re. wo. se. ka. se. mi. ka. te. te. ke. ta. i.*
- (3) *pa. pi. a. i. ta. i. a. po. ro. ti. ta. i.*

Or, in Greek :

- (1) *Προτοτιμῶ ἐμὶ τὰς Παφίας τῷ ἱε—*
- (2) *ρε. Φος κας μὶ κατέθηκεται*
- (3) *Παφίαι τὰ Ἀφροδίται.*

In English: "I am [the offering] of Prototimos, the priest of the Paphian; and he offered [me] to the Paphian Aphrodite."

This inscription contains very peculiar characters. It is thoroughly Cypriote in grammatical forms, with one exception that resembles the later Greek. Very striking is the use of the syllable *μι* for the pronoun *ἐμε*. To the Cypriote scholar these eight inscriptions are a rich handful; not only in their several merits, but also in their collective force. All of them bear the name of Paphia.

The work which I have been enabled to accomplish since leaving America embraces, exclusive of old inscriptions in Europe and Cyprus, and exclusive of coins, nineteen new inscriptions.

Much still remains to be done; but if another year shall prove as rich in fruit as the year just past, the Cypriote writing will very nearly have lost its character as a riddle; and the domain of study will have been transferred to the resifting of ancient material that has long lain in the libraries under false suspicion. To construct a grammar and vocabulary would still be premature; and an attempt to systematize all its contributions to history and a knowledge of the ancient life of the different peoples of Cyprus, is a matter that must remain for awhile yet in abeyance.

COLLEGE LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION.

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INTRODUCTION — IMPORTANCE OF STUDENTS BECOMING INTELLIGENT
READERS.

In this paper the administration of a library for the use of college students alone is considered. College officers, and sometimes the public; make use of college libraries; but of this use it is not my purpose to treat. I am to speak of a library as a magnificent educational apparatus. The question at every college is: "How shall the student of to-day become the scholar of to-morrow? It will depend little upon teachers, much upon books. He must learn to stand face to face with nature, with society and with books. Without these last he will ever be wasting his time on the problems of the past; with them alone can he get abreast with his age. Carlyle has pointed out the true relation of the teacher to the book. "All that a university or final highest school can do for us, is still but what the first school began doing—teach us to read." And yet how few of the multitude who annually carry their parchments from our colleges can be said to be intelligent readers?

The importance of properly teaching to read, has vastly increased during the last half century by the rapid increase of libraries and other reading opportunities all over the land. The young man who enters the list for scholarship to-day, has a very different field before him from what he had fifty years ago. Then most young graduates had to settle down to their life work where they had access to very few books, and among men who had never seen a library. Now all at least who give promise of scholarship, soon find themselves in communities where books and magazines are as necessary for the mind as bread for the body, among men whose leisure hours are spent in large libraries. All read and think. Our young graduate, to be a scholar, an intellectual leader, must rise among men who are constant readers. The standard of scholarship is pushed upward by the growing intelligence of the masses. In view of these facts one can hardly over estimate the importance, to those whose aim is above mediocrity, of learning to read during their student life.

What, then, should the administration of a college library be? The question naturally divides itself into three, which I shall consider separately.

1. As to the preparation of the library itself; its growth, classification and the facilities for making it accessible.
2. As to the nature and extent of the privileges to be granted to readers.
3. As to the instruction in its use to be given to students.

I. PREPARATION OF THE LIBRARY FOR USE.

(a) *Its growth.*—First, then, the preparation; and so far as this has reference to students, the demands of higher education are never to be lost sight of. The object of a college library is not mere information, nor amusement, nor, in general, professional training. Now, theoretically at least, a college education extends to all the general departments of human thought, literature, science, art, history, etc., with their various subdivisions. Each of these departments requires its share in the library, which shall be to the department the best attainable expression of its historical development and present condition. If the instruction keeps up with the age, the curriculum of studies and lectures will furnish the central thoughts about which the library ought to grow. Its growth will, therefore, be best directed by the heads of departments in the faculty. It is assumed that every professor will know what the library contains in his own special field of inquiry, and also what will increase its efficiency most in that field. An active librarian and library committee can do much, but they cannot be expected to know an entire library thoroughly, and also to read ahead of its growth, so to speak, and know what of all the books published each department most needs.

Moreover should a college library ever transcend the necessary requirements of college education, and become the means of more liberal culture and more extended investigation, it is doubtful whether, even then, its growth could be better directed than by the officers of instruction, who would always have so large an interest in such culture and investigation.

(b) *Its classification.*—What the classification of a library should be, is a question much more easily asked than answered. There are objections to all plans. One difficulty may be guarded against, however, at the outset. There is a natural tendency where the plan adopted does not prove perfectly satisfactory to modify it slightly here and there, or change it gradually as new books are distributed. This will work ruin to all order. A slightly imperfect plan well understood and strictly followed, is far better than two or three plans at once. It is important, therefore, to avoid, as far as possible, any occasion for such confusion,

that the classification be very carefully considered, once for all, by men of wide experience with libraries, and of good practical common sense. Much has been said and written on this subject, but it is evident that beyond certain general outlines no classification can be made which would be suited to all libraries. Every library has its own underlying ideas, its own objects and aims. The question in a college is: How shall the library become the most perfect educational apparatus? Now I have suggested that it grow constantly around the central ideas of each department of instruction. I think, also, that no better practical classification can be devised than that whose general plan is based upon the classification of instruction under the several officers. Not that the number of classes should be incomplete or the classes mixed because at any given time the faculty is not all that might be desired; but that *the* division of books is best which corresponds on the whole to that division of the instruction which is best suited to the aims and purposes of the institution. Such a classification cannot be said to be unphilosophical, and it serves the purposes of both teacher and student admirably. Each teacher has his particular set of books where he can examine it and watch its growth most easily, and add its full force to the means of instruction in his department. Students become familiar with the division of studies in their daily work, and if that of the library corresponds, they can enter upon its use without difficulty.

(c) *Its catalogue.*—After the classification comes the cataloguing; and here, also, the objections to every plan are so numerous and so forcible, that nothing but an imperative demand will induce one to undertake it at all. Some years ago I wrote to Mr. W. F. Poole, the author of the *Index to Periodical Literature*, and a distinguished librarian, for practical advice about cataloguing. He encouraged me in his answer by saying, "whatever plan you adopt, you will not go far before being sorry you did not adopt some other." As it turned out he was not altogether wrong. As one studies this subject it seems more and more strange that the making of a catalogue should not have become, after so many centuries of the use of libraries, like the binding of a book, an operation perfectly well understood and agreed upon. The men who have the care and management of books, would not be likely as a class, to yield in point of intelligence to men of mechanical or commercial pursuits, and yet they have fallen far behind them in the matter of a systematic division of labor. They seem like men who would insist on making each his own coat, because his back was slightly different from every other man's.

It is not my purpose to discuss the subject of cataloguing at length, but merely to point out what seems to be the present tendency, and make a single suggestion in regard to coöperation. In many of the

large libraries of the country the card system has been exclusively adopted. Several of them have no intention of printing any more catalogues in book form. In several others cards are adopted for current accessions, with the expectation of printing supplements from them at some time. I think the tendency of the smaller libraries is to adopt the former plan, keeping up a card catalogue as books are added, without a thought of printing. I had the pleasure about a year ago of visiting several of the large libraries in New England. All were busy making cards; only one expected to print. Turning over their annual reports quite a large per centage of their working force was put down in the cataloguing department. On comparing the cards they were found to contain substantially the same thing. Returning home my own regular duties required the preparation of the same kind of cards. At the Rochester Theological Seminary, a few squares from me, they were at the same time doing the same thing. Now consider the waste of energy throughout the country if, as now seems probable, the card system is to prevail. Every book has its card or cards, and every library that has the book wants those cards in substantially the same form. But instead of that coöperation which would have the cards made by men of experience at the great libraries and printed once for all, and sent upon order all over the country, the several libraries are paying men, often inexperienced, to make them in manuscript each for itself. Let the directors of a new library of 10,000 volumes, determine to-day to make a card catalogue *de novo*; they can take no advantage whatever of the fact that nearly every book they have, has had its cards made over and over again with great care and at great expense. Nor can the librarian who has his catalogue complete to date, take any advantage when piles of new books are received, of the cards which scores of other librarians are making of those same books. Now, without further words, it would seem that a simple plan might be devised by which it would be possible for hundreds of libraries to order their cards by numbers carefully prepared and neatly printed; and that too at a very small expense compared with that of making them. This plan would be free from many of the objections to the plans for coöperation heretofore proposed. Indeed, I am not sure but it would be practicable and economical for even half a dozen colleges to agree upon the general form of a card, and unite their usual cataloguing expense to secure a more skillful preparation and a printed card. A few details relative to classification and shelving, could be added by each library for itself. But the card system is comparatively new, and perhaps not yet general enough to expect from it so great results.

(d) *Its indexes.*—Another means of making a library easily accessible, is the indexing of its monographs. A good index is indeed a

proper, and almost necessary supplement to a good catalogue. Whether the rapid increase of periodical literature and other miscellaneous essays is an evidence of intellectual growth or decay, everybody knows that very much of the best and most serviceable material of a library is in this form. In investigating subjects for essays, a student finds these monographs most useful in various ways. They introduce him to the authors to be read; they supplement the reading of elaborate treatises by pointing out their strong and their weak points; they often present a kind of birds-eye view of a subject, so that a student whose reading has been limited, can see much better the relation of the authors he reads; and moreover it often happens that a few well written essays are all one, whether teacher or student, can find it practicable to read on a subject. One day's reading will, thus, often give him what, without the essays, he would never have got at all. But to have these essays in a library without an index is like owning fish in the midst of the sea. I have found after a careful examination, that an ordinary library contains nearly or quite as many valuable monographs in various forms as valuable volumes; but without an index no one would think of finding a tenth part of them. That administration is best which puts a library most completely at the immediate command of every reader on every subject. Having undertaken this work of indexing some years ago, and continued it ever since, and having seen how useful a large part of my library which had previously been almost useless becomes at once when indexed, I have thought it better of late to err on the side of too much rather than too little. Already I have more articles of various kinds indexed than I have volumes in my library. This has been done wholly at the expense of the University at Rochester. I shall dismiss this part of my subject with the remark that in this work, as well as in cataloguing, it is very desirable that some system of coöperation be adopted among college and other libraries.

2. NATURE AND EXTENT OF PRIVILEGES TO BE GRANTED TO READERS.

(a) *Use of books out of the library.* — With a library properly selected, classified, catalogued and indexed, we are prepared to consider secondly the extent of the privileges to be granted to readers — in the subject before us, to student readers. Under this head a good administration requires that two objects be kept steadily in view: First, that the highest working power of the library be secured; and, secondly, that it be protected from loss or other injury. I have purposely put these objects in the order given. There may have been a time, when books were rare and costly, in which the chief duty of a librarian was to watch over them and keep them in good order. But, happily, that time is forever past. It would be well if the thoughts and habits begotten by

those circumstances were also forever outgrown and past. The first question now is: What use will increase the educational power of this apparatus? The second: What restrictions are required for its preservation? Every librarian is called upon to answer these questions in regard first to the removal of books from the library to be read at the students' rooms or homes. Usage is here divided. In many places it is thought sufficient to fit up good reading-rooms in the library-building; keep them warm and lighted and under good regulations, and require all the reading to be done there. In some other places the tendency is to the opposite extreme; every student is practically allowed to carry away about as many books as he pleases, and keep them about as long as he pleases. The latter practice is clearly careless and wrong; the former seems to me to belong to the past rather than the present. When books are so plenty and so cheap, the principal objections to drawing them for use away from the library are easily removed. Books are worn out faster when carried away; they are not at hand when wanted at the library for consultation or otherwise; some are never returned. These are serious objections, but they may all be removed at very slight expense. There are some books, it is true, which should clearly be kept out of the circulation, such as those which are strictly works of reference, which would very seldom be wanted away, and very rare and expensive books. Except as to these classes, it seems to me that an unnecessary obstacle is placed in the way of reading if students are not allowed to have books in the freedom of their homes, where they may, at pleasure, linger long and without interruption, over the pages of an attractive or difficult volume, or have a catch-book at hand for every leisure moment. Let no one have an excuse; make reading as attractive and as easy as possible. The only restriction necessary is, that books be taken to be used and not to be kept; and hence that a limited number be taken at a time, and that these be returned as soon as used. The only cost of such use is that a librarian look sharply after the books that are drawn out, and that a very small sum be expended annually to replace worn-out and lost books, and to purchase duplicates of those which are constantly wanted both out of the library and in it.

(b) *Access to the shelves.*—In another particular a librarian has to study carefully the relation between the highest working power of his library and the restrictions necessary for its preservation. I refer to the use of books at the cases. Here, too, I think, for various reasons, the barriers should be removed, and reading made as easy as possible. The study of the library, as such, is a very important part of a student's education. There is a comprehensive view of science and literature in simply looking over a well classified library which can be had in no other way. There is a complaint, doubtless well-founded, that the

present tendency is to drift away from solid reading, and be content with the cheap reproductions of thought in the flood of newspapers and magazines. The daily or weekly, or monthly, is ever before us. If this generation fails to produce scholarship commensurate with its advantages, will it not be largely due to the frittering away of time over hastily written paragraphs or insignificant current events which might have been spent on good authors? A young man who is ashamed to be ignorant of all the recent newspaper gossip, is seldom found hungering and thirsting for scholarship. He has little time and less disposition for protracted and thoughtful study of the great masters in science and literature. Now, by all means, let this tendency be counteracted by making familiarity with well-chosen books as easy as practicable. No habit is more uncertain or capricious than that of a student in a library. He wants to thumb the books which he can't call for by name. It isn't an idle curiosity. He wants to know, and has a right to know, a good deal more about them than can be learned from teachers and catalogues. Deny him this, and he turns away disappointed and discouraged; but grant him this, and his interest is awakened, his love for books encouraged, and the habit of reading likely to be formed.

Another end to be attained by the study of the library at the cases is that general knowledge of books which will fit a young man to buy them in after life, both for himself and for the libraries where he may have influence. I have not time to set forth the importance of this consideration. Everybody knows that among the many books now published to choose wisely is very difficult. The power to mold public tastes and opinions in a town where a young library is growing up, exerted by a man who has prepared himself thoroughly in college life to select books well, can hardly be estimated. To me it seems clear that the young man who spends four or six years as a student where he can see a library but cannot reach it, just fails of the only opportunity ever possible to him both to acquire for himself the tastes and habits of a good reader, and to prepare himself to mold the tastes and habits of others.

Again, in college life every young man has constantly before him two or three, perhaps four or five subjects of study, which make up altogether his prescribed course. Now, there is a school-boy way of going through such a course from time to time, learning precisely what is assigned, and never looking to the right hand nor to the left for collateral views of different writers. Servility and narrowness are the result. There is also a scholarly and manly way of making the required study only the pathway of thought through a very wide field of inquiry. This is the true method of a higher education. The collateral reading is the student's own field. He feels a manly self-dependence as he turns over

for himself the authors whose opinions have been accepted or rejected by his teacher. He raises pertinent and exhaustive questions. He learns the names and something of the lives of the men who have been connected with the sciences he studies. He makes memoranda of works for future reading, with their several characteristics. When his textbook is finished he is fitted by his knowledge, and much more by his method, to work for himself, or for the public, on all questions involved in it. But the condition of such a course is a proper relation to the library. No student can do this work well, and few will undertake it at all by calling for books from a catalogue. A reference is to be made, a date fixed, a question of authority to be settled, the relation of two men to be ascertained, a formula to be copied, and a thousand other almost indefinable little things to be done, the doing of which rapidly and independently is the very exercise which will go far toward making the man a broad and self-reliant scholar. To do them, however, a man must stand face to face with the books required.

(c) *How to use often not so much studied as how to get and preserve.*—

Now, great as these advantages are, I am persuaded that they are not usually contemplated by college library regulations. How to use books is not so much studied as how to get them and preserve them. I have seen a college library of 25,000 volumes or more, all well bound and in perfect order, where the reading room was entirely apart, and the books could be seen by students only through an opening like that of a ticket office at a railroad station. The reading room contained a catalogue and also dictionaries, cyclopædias, newspapers and magazines. The result one can easily conjecture; the students read the newspapers and the librarian preserved the books! At another college which has good claims to rank among the first in the country, a friend residing as a student after complaining of the great difficulty of studying a library by means of a catalogue only, writes that he knows it contains many good books, for he got in through the window one Sunday and spent the whole day there. It is pertinent to inquire whether the interests of education would not have been promoted by allowing such a student to ascertain that fact on a week day! In short it is the usual regulation, conspicuously posted, "Students are not allowed to take books from the shelves." I have inquired in several libraries what provision was made for students to look through the cases and study the library as a whole; the answer has been either that there was no such provision, or that the privilege was sometimes granted as a special favor to very worthy young men.

Now the general regulation is well enough, but I cannot believe that a college library has reached anything like its highest working power unless this general regulation is made subject to an exception and ample

provision is made for the kind of work I have pointed out. The extent and kind of such provision, practicable or even desirable, would differ widely in different places. Certain hours set apart each week for all classes together, or in larger institutions separate hours for the different classes, would be enough to accomplish a great deal. Or it might be better to fix certain hours when the library should be given up to such work, and let the admission be regulated by previous arrangement with the librarian or other officers. The number to be provided for at once, could thus be adjusted to the convenience of the rooms and the number of assistants at the command of the librarian; and what is quite as important, the students admitted could be definitely put upon their honor in the enjoyment of such a privilege and excluded if found untrustworthy.

What I have written on this subject is not mere theory. For more than ten years I have seen the best results from the use of books I have described. The two hours of voluntary work done regularly every Saturday at our library by an average of one-third of our students, does them more good than any two hours instruction they receive through the week. It develops their own powers and begets the habit of research and the love of books. A little extra attention to the enforcement of rules on these occasions, is sufficient to prevent nearly all the evils likely to grow out of such a privilege.

3. INSTRUCTION IN THE USE OF A LIBRARY, SHOWING:

(a) *The importance and the mode of learning something about a book before reading it.* — There is time for but few words on the third general division of my subject — the instruction to be given in the use of a library. Is it practicable or even possible to give such a systematic course of instruction as to make a considerable number of every college class bookish men? I do not mean book-worms, men whose minds are mere channels for a stream of other men's thoughts, but men whom reading makes full, to use the thought of Bacon. Clearly whatever can be done in this direction, can be done best in connection with the library. A brief course of lectures on books, how to get them, how to keep them, and how to use them would come from a scholarly librarian in a systematic way with much better effect than in rambling talks by the heads of departments of instruction. It is in his power to know the reading habits of every student, and be keenly alive to mistakes in every department. "Are you not reading too rapidly to remember what is in those books," said I to a student once, who was drawing and returning heavy volumes of history in rapid succession. "You may examine me upon them," was the somewhat curt but satisfactory answer. The incident was suggestive. It would be easy for the librarian, if it

were only understood to be a part of his regular duty, to follow up his systematic public instruction by constant private and personal examination, which is the most successful of all teaching.

Look at two or three points on which an active librarian may be of great service to inexperienced readers. First of all in explaining the importance and the mode of learning something of a book before reading it. Before sitting down to a heavy volume an intelligent reader learns in some way either its place among books on the same subject, or the place of its author among authors; or in the absence of such knowledge he reads the volume in some sense as a critic. Here the boy makes a mistake. How many young students of law have sat down to Blackstone with the best intentions, been delighted with the first few lectures which present general principles, and then waded on day after day through all the technicalities and intricacies of English common law, and awoke to the fact when it was all over, that what they had been reading was, to them, and to the writers of to-day, history! The mistake is a common and very serious one; but it is not difficult to correct it. As soon as the right-minded student has had it pointed out, and been shown what to do in the case, he takes an interest in learning who an author was, what were his qualifications and facilities for writing, his purpose in writing the particular book under consideration, the side of the questions involved toward which his religion or his politics or his philosophy would incline him, and also in learning the place of the book among books of its class. He will then come to the reading of it in the attitude of a scholar, and not of a school boy.

Let me add here parenthetically, that there is great need in our libraries of a manual which should give concisely this much desired information regarding all the standard works, large or small, in the different fields of science and literature.

(b) *How to investigate a subject in a library.* — Another point at which the instruction of the librarian is greatly needed, is in the investigation of subjects. What the student wants to encourage such work is to know how to take hold of it in the right way and do it easily. He wants not results, but a method. Let the librarian take up his subject and show him in one or two cases, how to put questions to a library; let him go about with him from case to case and show how many different parts of a library must be laid under contribution for the exhaustive study of a single subject; let him accept or reject, or hold subject to examination the books which bear upon it, as they appear to be good, bad or doubtful. The intelligent student will soon learn by example and afterwards use the hours set apart for such work, chasing down questions for himself.

(c) *How to plan and pursue courses of reading.*—Students need the continual oversight of the librarian also in applying the common rule of Bacon, that some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and a few to be chewed and digested. The rule sounds well, but it is very much like reading a rule to a young mechanic about the use of a chest of tools. The difficulty is in the application. What is to be tasted by one is to be chewed by another; and the same person must taste a given book at one time, and chew and digest it at another. The most common mistake is in forming too large plans, which must be abandoned. The favorable notice of a professor sends many a student to an immense set of books before he has the slightest idea of the work of reading them. The result is, he is discouraged at the middle of the first volume. A distaste for reading altogether is likely to be the result. The remedy is easy. One book on a subject properly selected and thoroughly read, and a score of others properly tasted of, is generally practicable; and if repeated as occasion requires throughout a course, will accomplish very much.

Now if it be said that all this work should be done by the several officers of instruction, the answer is, very well, if they will only do it. But if it is true that what is everybody's business is not likely to be done, then I see no better way than to make the librarian responsible for the reading habits of every student. He would have to be appointed, not as at present, in the small colleges from men already burdened with other duties, or as in the larger ones, for his business qualifications alone. He must have a knowledge of books, and power to teach. He must be not a mere curator of the library, but what Emerson says is much wanted, "a professor of books."

Or if it be objected that no man can give advice in so many and so diverse fields of inquiry, the answer is, that the work pointed out is only general, and, for the most part, elementary. The professor, in each department, is always at hand for reference on all the more difficult questions. Let the librarian be chosen as an educator; let him study his work for life as a professor of Greek studies language; let him make reputation for himself and his college by winning over young men from the habit of gazing listlessly at the backs of books, to an intelligent and passionate longing to know all that is possible of them and about them, and though mistakes may be made, much, very much, will be accomplished.

SCHOOL SUPERVISION AND STATE AID.

By Instructor W. W. DAWLEY, A. B., LL. B.,
of Amsterdam Academy.

MR. CHANCELLOR AND MEMBERS OF THE CONVOCATION. — Were you standing near some great manufactory, viewing its beautiful surroundings, and in wonderment gazing at its colossal columns of solid masonry, its grand proportions and awe-inspiring appearance, that inborn curiosity of the human mind would inspire you to investigate the interior nature and workings of a structure whose exterior was so symmetrical and imposing. You enter ; you are amazed at the costliness and value of the materials, eagerly you examine the machinery, its delicate mechanism and skillful workmanship. You are conducted through all the intricate windings and avenues of the various departments. The perfect adjustment and harmonious working of the whole and its separate parts, strongly impress you. The different processes, the various changes, the final result, are carefully observed. Anxiously you watch the raw material as it undergoes its rapid transformations and continuous improvement, until it issues forth a finished product. You admire its finely-wrought texture, its beauty and completeness, and you do not recognize in the faultless article before you the ill-formed, unwrought mass that you first beheld ; yet you know it is the same elements in an improved state, for you have watched it in its every change from its original roughness to its present perfection. And what have you learned in this tour ? You have perceived a perfect union and connection of machinery, an absolute dependence of each consecutive part upon the other, and a systematic gradation of all. But above all you have learned that here, where there is not a jar nor a clash, there is a single managing head from whence emanates all control, whence subordinate directors receive their authority, and to which they are all accountable.

The system of education is but a manufactory, a molding and finishing process. The youth, the type of the raw material, enters the common school, thence, in a gradual advancement, through the academy, the college, the university, whence he comes forth the refined scholar, the profound thinker, the enlightened man. These institutions are the various departments in our educational factory. Their relations are as mutual, their connection and dependence as essential, and their gradation as perfect as those in any machinist's shop or manufacturer's

mill. So vital are the relations and dependency of these institutions that the defect of any one is subversive of their unity and complete effectiveness. Civil and political welfare, intellectual growth and mental development all demand that they shall constitute one whole system, that they shall represent the various elements of the composite whole. To effect and preserve this unity and gradation, a singleness in the supervising power is indispensable; there must be an indivisible head for their direction in which shall be centered the exclusive right of issuing all orders, not only to common schools but also to academies and normal schools. They must be unified in order to preclude discord and hostility, which will always destroy effective work and desirable results. School superintendence, as now conducted, is indeed an expensive luxury. Many of our supervising offices as now qualified, created and filled, are useless. The supervision of our common schools is an annually enacted farce; the end sought is not obtained. These are, indeed, lamentable facts, but nevertheless patent truths.

The State, with its wonted munificence, is tendering its kindness to salaried school officials who by their labors bestow upon it no return value; but, in return for its gratuity, they would drain its treasury and then clamor for higher salaries and less work. The fact is that their compensation in many, aye too many cases, is more than commensurate with their work. The State to-day is paying for labor that never was expended, granting public money to men whose labor is a detriment, rather than a benefit to the cause which they are supposed to espouse. A tirade upon school officers is not the object of this paper; but its design is to lay before you some of the defects in the supervising powers and, if possible, suggest a plan for remedying them. The State expenditure for school supervision is too large. By curtailing the number of officers and giving to those we do retain, a sum sufficient to compensate them for exclusive devotion of their whole attention and talents to this work for such time as they may be employed in it, the expenditure of public moneys for this purpose can be materially lessened and as valuable results effected. The school commissioners are receiving an annual salary from the State, to say nothing of the additional sum received from each county. The county tax itself is in many cases amply sufficient to compensate them for the time actually employed in school duties. In most instances but a small portion of each year is devoted to school affairs; the commissioners generally have other duties either of a business nature or professional, which demand their time; and negligence of school duties on their part, goes unnoticed and unpunished. The office is accepted not as a substitute for other business, but as additional to it. When we covenant to give an annual salary, we expect at least a greater portion of the year to be consumed in the dis-

charge of those duties for which the salary is granted. What is given over and above enough to recompense them for their work, simply augments their private emoluments, which is nothing less than converting public funds into individual possession. Thus the treasury is depleted by officials whose heart is not in their work and whose aim is popularity and re-election. The examination of teachers is a legal farce; the visiting of schools is of less value. Political influence or influential friends qualify them for teachers; willingness to work for comparatively nothing procures a situation. Laxity in examination fills our schools with incompetent teachers; from incompetent teachers result valueless schools; and badly conducted schools necessitate a retrograde movement in education. Hence school commissioners are to a great degree responsible for the almost prostrate condition of our common schools.

To avoid this looseness in teachers' examination and elevate the standard of qualification as well as remedy this erroneous and useless expenditure of public funds, I would propose a plan that seems not only feasible but advisable.

First, there should be a single head of supervision, whose decision should be final and admit of no appeal. I repeat, this head should be single, having a universal control of all schools, inclusive of academies and normal schools. The present superintendence is divided, the State superintendent having the direction of the normal and common schools, and the Board of Regents the control of the academies; and this division occasions rivalry, and sometimes opposition and hostility. Now, to unify this supervision, the office of the State superintendent should be abolished, and his authority, together with that of the Regents, centered in one body. Thus would be saved for the State about \$3,000 annually, and thus would a clashing of authorities be prevented.

The State University is properly the head of our system of education. Owing to the ability, age and experience of its members, the Board of Regents should constitute the supervising body proper. This board should have the final determination in choosing all school-directing officers. The board of supervisors of each respective county should have the power to appoint a school commissioner for their county, subject only to the approval of the Regents. Thus the power to appoint the commissioners would be conferred upon the supervisors, while the final sanction of the appointments would rest with the board proper. Instead of being paid annually by the State, each commissioner should be paid by a county tax. His salary should not be an annual one, but he should receive a specified sum per day for each full day actually employed in school duties. This sum should be sufficiently ample to make it a desirable position, and thus secure the appointment of experienced and competent men in the office. In order to entitle him to any compensation,

it should be made obligatory upon him to make affidavit under oath that he has been actually engaged in school work during each and every day for which he demands pay ; and he should be compelled to devote to this work of supervision time enough to enable him to spend at least a full half-day twice per year in each and every school within his commissioner district. Thus would the State expenditure be wonderfully diminished. The amount now given by each county would more than pay the commissioner for the time consumed in school affairs. Better commissioners and better work would be secured, and the amount from the State be lessened on an average by about \$3,000 to each respective county.

It should be the further duty of the board of supervision, to revise and send to each commissioner twice a year, a printed list of questions to be presented to every applicant for a license; each candidate for a certificate should be compelled to answer a fixed per cent of these questions, which per cent should vary for the different grades. These examinations should be the same throughout the State, and should be held in each county at not more than two different places semi-annually; and, if possible, only one day should intervene between the examinations in these two places. There should be no deviation from this rule, and to secure inflexibility in it, each commissioner should certify under oath that each teacher whom he has licensed has correctly answered the required number of questions, and that he has held his examinations as required.

Such a plan would be prolific of valuable results. The creation of a supervising board and the abolishment of the State superintendent's office, would concentrate all authority in this board, and by thus making it supreme and single, prevent clashing and conflicting orders; this uniformity in examinations in every part of the State, would preclude partiality on the commissioner's part, elevate the standard of teachers' examinations, secure better teachers and make a license at least presumptive evidence of proper qualifications to instruct. Thus every teacher throughout the State would be subjected to the same searching examination and their certificates should be good in any county in the State, and should be granted for a term of five years in any school of a grade corresponding to the grade of the license, with the single proviso that a failure in government would forfeit the license and subject the holder to removal from school. The appointment of commissioners and their compensation per day would change the nature of the office from a purely political one, as it now is, to an educational one, and at the same time that it would secure more energetic and competent persons in that office, it would work a marked saving to the State for this purpose, and give it a large reserve fund which might be applied to the education of needy and indigent youths who are desirous of making teachers as well as enlightened citizens, which would make a large addi-

tion to the amount now granted by the State to academies and normal schools. This suggests the second part of my subject — State aid.

As State aid is now granted, there is a manifest injustice done to some, yes, many, of our institutions of learning. A universal tax for local purposes is always unjust; so appropriations from the State to a few local institutions, at the exclusion of many others whose work is as vital to our civil and educational welfare, seems not only unjust but impolitic in the extreme. Wisdom, justice and every consideration of general good, dictate a more equal and general distribution of public funds. They should be distributed where they can effect the greatest good to the greatest number, and that they can accomplish this when confined to eight institutions, the past history of education will at once disprove. Institutions capable of, and accomplishing equally beneficial results, ought to stand upon a common level, as far as encouragement from public revenues is concerned. Or to abbreviate these remarks and reduce them to the form of a syllogism: State aid is granted for the instruction and training of common school teachers; academies instruct and train as many, and as faithfully as normal schools; therefore academies should receive State support equally with the normal schools. The major premise needs no argument, no explanation. The aim and design of State aid, and the only condition upon which it is granted will support this premise. Hence, the minor premise proven, the conclusion cannot be denied. That academies are as efficient and thorough in their work as normal schools must be shown by reference to those who have enjoyed the tutorship of each respectively. Go with me, if you please, into the common schools; take those teachers whose labors you know are laudable and effective; consider their number, their work or their qualifications, and you cannot assert that those whose "alma mater" is a normal school, are superior to those who have drank freely from some academic fountain. Facts upon facts, reports upon reports, attest that the latter are equal to, and in many instances more efficient and earnest, than the former. We acknowledge that normal schools have not been founded as long as academies, but they are of sufficient age to enable us to judge of their nature and work, and to realize that they have not fulfilled the object of their creation.

Those who enter the teachers' classes in the academies, receive a special practical course in elementary as well as more advanced teaching. The normal student receives a like training only for a longer period, hence the normal advocate claims a more thorough preparation. But, in their zeal, they are blinded to one very important consideration, that the one in the academic class has already acquired that theoretical knowledge that the normal pupil is gaining during the greater portion of his course. The higher standard of admission to the former, will go

far to counterbalance the longer course in the latter. The drill, the discipline and practice, are of the same character, given for the same purpose and productive of almost identical results. There is as much ability, as great a fidelity of purpose, as much practicality, in the academic as in the normal instructor. There seems to be an impression, and it is deepening every year, upon some minds, that the legitimate consequence of a normal course will be to triple or quadruple the pay that they are to receive; and so strong is this idea and so mercenary their motives, that this alone prompts them to an attendance.

I do not wish to impugn the benefits and value of the normal schools. They are doing a noble work as far as they reach; and, though they do not come up to the anticipated standard, yet they are deserving of support and encouragement. Their past history shows good results. Notwithstanding all this, they are local in both establishment and benefits. Eight schools, which are from necessity sectional in the fruits of their labors, receive from State appropriations \$150,000 annually. Two hundred and thirty-four institutions, located in different sections of the State, equally productive of good, reaching over nearly forty times as much territory, and benefiting twenty-five times as many youth, receive only \$40,000. Did the State pay the same for each academic scholar, as for each one in the common schools, it would distribute annually over \$150,000; did it pay the same as to each normal student, it would give the academies \$940,000 per annum.

The academies are, indeed, vital to the cause of education. They are supplying common school teachers, fitting men for active life, preparing them for social and public duties, giving tone and dignity to education, and laying the corner-stone of a higher and more diffused intelligence. Even withdraw from the common schools those from academic institutions, and there is left a blank that no eight or even twenty normal schools can fill.

These eight schools are situated in eight different localities; they covenant to educate instructors for common schools; the State, in return, covenants to give them, each year, \$150,000. The whole State pays this sum, while these eight localities, and their immediate vicinity, receive the benefits. They are educating, to-day, between two and three thousand students, while the academies and academical departments of union schools are doing the same for over 30,000. I repeat, they are local. All cannot attend; some are prevented on account of distance; others on account of home duties. They are desirous of becoming professional teachers; they cannot leave home; the normal is at a distance, the academy near. Distance and home keep them from the former, financial want, from the latter; hence they are excluded from a profession upon which they would reflect honor, and for which nature designed them.

But few of the normal graduates teach within the State. Other States offer greater inducements for New York teachers than New York itself. Higher wages blind them to their righteous obligation to the "Empire State" for its beneficence. Few, and a very few, too, are found in the district schools, where the State intended when it offered free tuition and books. These places are too inferior, the pay too insignificant for a normal graduate, hence the academies must receive them among their instructors, for which place their education has not fitted them; or else other States will receive the whole benefit of their labors, while the State that advanced them goes unrewarded. Right here let me say that there is one normal school whose graduates do not hesitate to enter the common schools. I am proud to say that it is situated in this city; but it is indeed an exception.

But there is another class which the academy is educating, and for which the State can well afford to pay. It is composed of those from both city and country who never attend school after leaving the academy, but still are found in business life, in all the professions and in congress halls. Every consideration of sound policy demands that they be fitted for good citizens, that they receive a broad and liberal culture, upon which may be erected the superstructure of noble and exalted characters, that shall arouse them to lives of devotion to civil as well as individual prosperity, and insure the perpetuity of our government. The academies, by their more liberal and varied courses, are better prepared for this work than any other institutions, and as such are entitled to a generous support from the public treasury.

In conclusion, I would say that I do not advocate the policy of depriving the normal schools of all support from the State, but both sound policy and wisdom do sanction the bestowal of equal assistance to academies. To recapitulate: The academies are universal in their benefits; normal schools, from necessity, are local. The former are doing a work commensurate with that of the latter, doing it equally well, are better adapted to the various classes and grades of youth, are the stepping-stone to college, and are the foster-mothers of the majority of the common school instructors. With these facts before you, with your own personal knowledge of both classes of schools, I appeal to you, educators of the "Empire State," to see that academies receive their just due — the receiving of State aid per capita with normal schools — and that you lend your help to secure unification in our school supervision, and thus save many thousand dollars that are now as good as squandered. By this course you can save a large fund as a support to educational institutions, or to be expended in some enterprise where a more fruitful return can be realized, and, at the same time, the cause of education receive a fresh impulse.

OF LAND SURVEYING IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

By Principal AARON WHITE, A. M.,
of Canastota Union School.

The right to possess and enjoy a *home* is a right most precious to all men. The hope of becoming absolute owner of a little spot of earth, under the guardian care of a good government, has been the grand motive for emigration to this, our beloved country, from its first settlement by Europeans to the present time. And, even now, from day to day, thousands of poor people may be seen, still going on, looking for that home of freedom in the great west.

The good citizen at home has rights and liberties with which none may intermeddle, and which not even the government itself may invade.

Within the lines which bound his own little kingdom, he collects all his precious things and the dear ones of his heart. Outside those lines he is the servant of society; but, when once within the sacred limits, society becomes like a wall of defense about him, and insures to him the peaceful enjoyment of whatever good things God may have given him. Hence it is that no department of scientific industry touches more nearly the private interests of men than that which defines and guards the boundaries of the homestead.

Our subject is "*Land Surveying*, as practiced in the State of New York;" but what we have to say belongs chiefly to the country and not to the city. The purpose of land surveying is, as was said above, to define and guard the boundaries of the homestead. The approved method of describing boundaries is by "bearing and distance," the instruments are "compass and chain," and the record is designed to secure and preserve boundary lines "*forever*." The labor of the "original" surveyor was chiefly the mathematical problem, and the mechanical work; but one who follows him in these times must exercise also the high functions of the judge. He must often decide doubtful questions, by the testimony of still more doubtful witnesses, and by a careful consideration of probabilities. He must be a practical antiquarian, and study the significance of old moss covered marks upon trees and rotten stumps; or he must find the very hole in the earth where the stake was driven, which has not been seen "within the memory of our fathers."

The mathematical problem has in it the theory of certainty, but the practical problem has in it the elements of a very sad uncertainty. *Sad,*

I say, because the results are sad. Friends are estranged from each other, jealousy and hatred separate children of the same, once happy, family; and large sums of money are annually squandered in useless litigation.

What are the causes of this uncertainty in ascertaining and finding the limits of landed property? First, our fathers trusted in the compass, and were disappointed. Surveyors, in former times, appear to have been ignorant of the fact that the needle varies from the pole; or, if the general fact was known, it was considered of slight importance. But the magnetic meridian is not, and probably, in most parts of the State, never has been the *true* meridian. When the record says "North," the owner of land thinks that it means north; but the surveyor knows, or ought to know, that it means no such thing, and never did mean any such thing. And right here the business of debate and conjecture begins. And not only so, but the position of the needle is constantly changing; the year, the month, and the hour of the day, affect, more or less, its position. Nor is there uniformity in its movements. If, then, these variations be unnoticed, the "original" work must be imperfect, and the records much less valuable for later times. Other causes of imperfection in the original work, are loose chaining, hilly ground, heavy forests covering the whole country, slight attention to leveling, haste in the work, fifteen miles per day, and no reviews. So it came to pass that the records, in many cases, never did represent, with any tolerable degree of exactness, the lines as they were marked in the field.

But again, at this distance of time, a still more fruitful source of uncertainty is the perishable nature of the monuments. Stakes at the corners of lots, with references to trees standing near, blazed and numbered, were the most common monuments. The stakes are neglected and lost, the trees are cut down or perish by natural decay, and nothing permanent has taken their place. But, again, those trees, which were called corner-trees, were seldom found exactly at the corners, but their distance and bearing from the corner were set down in the field-book; and surveys innumerable have been made without reference to those field-notes; and quite often the trees themselves are taken for corners; and, in fact, are so called in very many old deeds. And this has brought the work into great confusion. Also, for large tracts of country, the field-notes are destroyed or lost. In later times, corners of buildings have been used for reference; and these soon disappear. Bridges have been referred to, and these have been washed away by the floods. Thus the "original" evidences are rapidly disappearing.

In country places nothing is more common than to make the center of some public road the boundary line of the farm or lot. Some of

these roads were located upon the "original" lot lines, but in the hilly portion of the State this could not well be done. Examining the records of these roads, we find that they are of very little value. In general, one "starting point" is loosely described, and after that only "bearing and distance" are given, through the turns and windings of a long road to the end, and there is no particular description of the terminus. Have patience while we present a few examples. Take notice with what precision the "starting points" are described, and observe the nature of the monuments. Our examples are taken from Road Book No. 2 of the town of Lenox; but examples of the same sort may be found everywhere in the State.

Ex. 1. — Survey of a road "commencing in the center of the road one chain thirty-one links north of Beebe's bridge, so-called." Your effort to find that point will be guess work. Then we have eleven courses described by "bearing and distance," fifty-six chains, eighty-six links. Two stakes only are mentioned, but as these are now more than forty years old and stood in the center of the road, there is no probability that they could now be found.

Ex. 2. — Alteration of a road "beginning at a point in the center of the old road near a beech tree." Then eight courses are given with their bearings and distances, fifty-eight chains seventy-four links, to the center of Cowaselon creek road. No other points are described.

Ex. 3. — Cowaselon creek road, so-called, "beginning at a point in the center of a bridge over Cowaselon creek," thence running, etc., thirteen courses, seventy-six chains, twenty-five links, to where said road is intersected by a road from Lenox furnace."

Ex. 4. — A road ordered by three judges of the court of Common Pleas on an appeal from the decision of the road commissioners, "beginning at N. S. Roberts' south line near the house now occupied by David Hubbard; thence north twenty-eight degrees twenty minutes, east 100 chains to a stake stuck in the ground in the middle of the old traveled road, near the house of Abial Fuller."

Ex. 5. — A road ordered by the same judges, "beginning at the south end of said bridge, thence running," etc.

Ex. 6. — Road from Lee's bridge, so called, on the line between Sullivan and Lenox, to the east line of Lee's farm, "beginning at north two degrees thirty minutes, east 1.75 from the said bridge, thence," etc. We might ask from what point of the bridge? but probably that bridge has disappeared long ago.

Ex. 7. — Survey of a road running along the canal from Canastota to Quality Hill, "beginning at a point in the center of the road leading to New Boston, one chain five links, thence," etc., twenty-three courses by compass 107.17 chains. No other point is mentioned at all.

Ex. 8. — "Beginning at a stake in the center of an old road in front of John Belden's house."

Ex. 9. — "Beginning at a stake in the center of said road, thirty or forty rods south of the turnpike, thence," etc.

Ex. 10. — "Beginning at a point in the center of a road leading from the Oneida bridge to Stockbridge, north-east of Terrie's barn."

Ex. 11. — "Beginning at a white oak stump in said road, near the house of N. Clark."

Ex. 12. — "Beginning at a point in the center of the turnpike, thirteen rods west of the Oneida bridge," etc.

Ex. 13. — "Beginning at a stake at a corner of a log barn of Mr. Eddy," etc.

Ex. 14. — "Beginning at a stake one chain, fifty links north of Quality Hill bridge, so called," etc.

It is evident that a surveyor in retracing these lines must depend upon traditional testimony, and the position of fences as he finds them; he can make but very little use of the records. I am assured that these examples represent, fairly enough, the records of other towns all over the State.

Among the causes of uncertainty and confusion, we ought to mention, also, the insufficiency of the descriptions given in deeds of conveyance. The case is bad enough when the full description furnished by a surveyor is copied in the deed; but thousands of deeds are made out and recorded, from which the surveyor's notes are altogether omitted. The lot is bounded as a child learns geography, by mentioning whose land lies adjacent to it on all sides. In many cases, also, where some new lines are described, old compass bearings are copied for a part of the description, and new bearings are given for the new lines, so that harmony is impossible.

Perhaps you are already weary of these uncertainties; but many before you, both surveyors and landowners, have been made weary trying again and again to establish a line, spending upon lawyers and courts more than ten times the value of the land in dispute, and finally leaving to their children an estate as undefined as that which they themselves possessed.

But we have not yet done with this part of the subject. Many mistakes are made in the instruments of conveyance, arising from the ignorance of those who assume to do that kind of work. We find in the cities men who make this business a specialty; but in the country every magistrate, every lawyer, almost every notary, undertakes to fill out deeds of conveyance. It would seem that a man who is not able to plot a field, ought not to be authorized to make out these important papers. Yet many do this work who could not discover a mistake such

as north-east written for north-west, or three chains for thirteen chains. Also many a man who calls himself a surveyor, is but poorly qualified for his work.

We turn now to the other side of this discussion, and ask what remedies can be found for this unhappy condition of things? In answer to this question, we mention first, that which was suggested by our last preceding remark. No man should be permitted to practice surveying till his qualifications have been examined and approved by competent authority.

Again, we think that questions relating to boundary lines might better be examined and decided by a competent surveyor in the field, than to consume, as they now do, the time of the courts. A man should be put in charge of a certain district or territory, who should make himself thoroughly acquainted with his ground, and should be himself the court to examine and to decide on the spot, all questions of boundaries within his district. Perhaps in case the value in dispute should exceed a certain limit, an appeal might be allowed to a similar officer who should have jurisdiction in such matters throughout the State. Why should not a good surveyor, on the ground, be as likely to judge rightly, as a man who has had but little *practical* acquaintance with these matters, whose time is chiefly occupied with very different business and who must depend, after all, upon the testimony of this same surveyor for his judgment in the case?

It is evident that the sovereign authority of the State must be put in action to reform and systematize this whole business. The State must furnish a system of permanent monuments; must establish a scientific method of surveying; must appoint its officers to do the work; and must see to it that conveyances, when recorded, shall clearly describe the property to be conveyed.

Let fifty years more pass away and how few will remain of all the landmarks now in existence in the State! The work of examination and of erecting permanent monuments, should be commenced without delay.

I have thus far said nothing regarding the total lack of system in making out the original divisions of land in this State. No recognition of meridians or parallels; lines in every conceivable direction; lots of every possible size and form; each man for himself who could obtain a "grant" from the "States-General of Holland" or from the English king or from the aboriginal chieftains. And it seems that from the beginning to this day, it has been every man for himself. There is very little of law to regulate the business.

This is a subject which may properly be made a topic of special inquiry and examination by this Convocation. It has been my purpose

in this paper, not to make a thorough discussion of the present condition, nor to present my views of what ought to be done as if they were matured and perfected, but only to awaken attention and to provoke investigation. We hear continually the cry for "investigation" and "reform." Now let us "investigate and reform" this business of "Land Surveying in the State of New York." Let us first find out "what ought to be done," and, secondly, ask for such legislation as will effectively accomplish the work.

ALBANY, *July 12, 1876.*

Yesterday I called at the office of the city surveyor of the city of Albany, and was very politely permitted to see the kind of work done there. It appears on examination that the history of unsystematic and uncertain work of the original surveys which I had given as applicable only to the country places, is equally applicable to the city; crookedness and irregularity being the rule. I also called at the office of the Surveyor-General of the State of New York, and here again was very much gratified by the politeness with which the ancient "*Van Rensselaer*" received me and allowed me to examine the bound volumes of *Field Notes* left by the old surveyors. I was impressed with two considerations. First, that *honor* is *due* to those men who first surveyed and described these lands; their work was done quite well for their times; but, secondly, this brief examination of the old books added intensity and emphasis to the remarks presented in this paper, as to the perishable nature of the monuments and the necessity of moving immediately for a more thoroughly scientific and permanent system.

A. W.

MILITARY DRILL IN ACADEMIES.

By Colonel CHARLES J. WRIGHT, A. M., of Peekskill Academy.

The success of the drill and discipline established at West Point in developing the physique of its students, and the belief that the same methods might with advantage be introduced into schools not aiming to educate officers for the army, led to the establishment of the semi-military schools of the country. Many of these have been established by graduates of West Point; some have been very successful, others have proved total failures. I shall endeavor to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of drill in our schools, the extent to which it may be introduced, and the manner of introduction; the causes of success and failure.

The art of war has, perhaps, received more attention from mankind than all other arts combined; the civilized, the half civilized, the savage have alike desired to excel. The savage places himself under severe training that he may be a great warrior. The polished Greek gives his best genius to perfecting a system of military drill and organization, and with the wonderful result that the world is conquered. Among the nations of to-day no less attention is given to this art. Indeed, if we may judge from the time and thought that have been given to it, we may well believe that it is brought nearer to perfection than any other art and that no better means can be devised to make men (or boys) strong, courageous, firm, obedient—for this is what military art should accomplish. Skill in arms is of minor importance; it was not the spear that gave the Greek victory; it was not the sword that made Rome master of the world; it was not the needle gun and breech loading cannon that carried the Prussians to Paris; but it was strong, courageous firm, obedient men, or, in other words, men skilled in the art of war.

We wish to know how best to discipline our boys to make *them* strong, obedient, high-minded. Is it not worth our while to see if we cannot avail ourselves of the knowledge which the whole world has been accumulating on this very subject? That in education *we* think too much of the mind, too little of the body, and forget that the mind is dependent upon the body, is generally acknowledged. Teachers are apt to think their work quite complete when they have given the mind its nourishment.

The introduction of military drill into a school at once corrects this fault and gives a perfect system of light gymnastics. The musket is better than the wands, the dumb-bells, or the Indian clubs, as a means of gymnastic training; and the manual of arms is, it appears to me, the best series of motion possible to expand the chest, and to strengthen the muscles of the arms, hands, chest and back. I have taught Dio Lewis' gymnastics, but for boys I do not think they compare with the manual of arms. For the lower extremities ample exercise is afforded by the facings and marching in quick and double time. Again, what an advantage that, if the day be pleasant, a few words of command bring you into the open air and bright sunshine, with a system of drill just suited to the open field. The sedentary lover of books is by this exercise taken out into the air and sunshine every day; his back, which is half doubled up, is strengthened; his slow motion is made prompt, and after half an hour's drill he goes into school with his chest a half-inch larger around. I have seen it work just that way.

It may truly be urged as an objection to military drills that there is a great deal to be taught, and that an experienced instructor is required; that arms and accoutrements are difficult to take care of, and must be properly handled; that they add materially to the care and responsibility of the principal; that the presence of guns requires powder, which is, in every way, objectionable. In answer to these objections, I would say that, with a competent drill-master, all the difficulties disappear; the boys soon take pride in their muskets; suitable racks are easily provided for guns and belts. (I have always found it best not to allow cadets to retain charge of their own guns, but to have a rack provided in which all guns should be kept.) Ammunition occasions no trouble, for if a school be armed with muzzle-loading rifles, it will be best to provide one breech-loader for target excursions, which, with its ammunition, can be handled without the least danger.

To obtain arms application should be made to the Adjutant-General of the State. Unfortunately, our Empire State has made no provision for furnishing arms to the school. In Pennsylvania, or Connecticut, in fact in almost any other of the States, schools can easily obtain arms. And so it should be, for how can we easier prepare for the possible contingency of war? On Governor's island is a long building filled with cases of guns, over a million stand, the ordnance officer in charge told me; and he remarked that they would be better to be carefully used than idle. Yet it is almost impossible for a school, desiring to introduce drill, to procure arms. This is all wrong. Since it is necessary to have a large number of guns on hand it is as well, yes, better, to have them in the hands of our young men than idle, perhaps rusting in magazines. The Inspector-General should visit our schools and see that the arms are in

perfect order. It would be just to withdraw them from a school where they were neglected, but it is not good policy to refuse to arm our school-boys; it will not be long before we shall rely upon them for our volunteer army.

But little time is required to accomplish the good work of disciplining and training boys. Thirty minutes each school-day will soon bring a school into excellent discipline, and enable them to accomplish the school of the soldier, of the company and of the battalion, and the skirmish drill of infantry tactics. The drill should, if possible, be daily, or at least, three times a week; and as very strict attention is required, the drill should be short. It should be brisk, sharp, wide-awake, and soon over. It should come in school-hours, not in play time. I think this is a very important point on which the popularity of the exercise depends. The best time is the middle of the long session—say at 10.30 A. M. It then answers a double purpose. It gives the requisite physical training, and it breaks up the long session by a rest from books, and a taste of the fresh air. The boys return to their books with eyes sparkling and cheeks rosy. The veriest sluggard in the school returns from drill feeling “first-rate.” Two minutes is ample time, after a little training, to go from class-rooms to drill-room, to take arms and prepare for drill. Two minutes will return boys from drill to class-rooms, though an intermission of five minutes should be given after drill. I believe boys will do more work, mental work, between 9 and 12 o’clock, with thirty minutes for drill, than without it. I think the time not only is not lost to study, but is an actual gain.

To give arms in two minutes requires organization and discipline. The boys must be formed into companies, with wide-awake officers, and the utmost good order and attention to business must be insisted upon. In this, as in every part of the drill, much depends upon selecting good officers; and the only certain way to accomplish this is by competitive examinations. Such an examination is easily managed. All entering the examination are required to write out, in detail, with commands, such movements as you direct. An examination of the papers quickly reveals the best. As all are examined at the same time, and upon the same questions, a just and judicious choice is almost certain. To secure strict attention on drill, I have devised no better plan than this, for it is soon evident that only those cadets who give the closest attention to commands and methods, can hope for promotion.

In many of our military schools, drill is discontinued in the winter; this I think a mistake in every way; regular exercise is then most needed and most valuable, the bracing air makes it easy to secure that vivacity of movement that gives such a charm to the manual of arms,

well executed. Before a suitable drill hall was provided, I used a passage-way for winter drill and found little difficulty in interesting the boys, even there, in the management of the musket.

Target shooting is another omission. It is so easy, so entirely safe, that no school professing to give instruction in arms should neglect to make its cadets familiar with the practical use of the rifle. Select a field where the target, which should be thirty inches in diameter, will have a hill or high bank behind it, measure off 100 yards and place the rest. Place the rifle to be used (which should be a good breech loader) in the hands of a reliable officer. Place in a safe position, near the target, a careful person to mark the shots; let each cadet fire three shots, and mark the target after each cadet has fired. No difficulty has ever attended the target practice at Peekskill, and of all the prizes awarded no one is more eagerly contended for than "best shot."

I will not enlarge upon the advantage to the State of having its sons trained to arms, but I wish to call your attention to this most important fact that drill does not in the least interfere with ordinary school work, but is an actual assistance. At Peekskill those boys who do not drill (for drill is optional with day boys) and who therefore give that time to study, as is required, make a lower average standing than those in the cadet corps. The boys who drill usually carry off the literary prizes.

VOLUNTARYISM IN HIGHER EDUCATION.

By MARTIN B. ANDERSON, LL. D.,
President of the University of Rochester.

The early Christians found education imbedded in heathenism. As the State religion was heathen, they were, of necessity, obliged to establish schools for their children, in order to prevent them from being positively instructed in the principles of a false religion. Hence Christian schools, supported by the voluntary contributions of the Christian population, grew up side by side with Christian churches and charitable institutions similarly maintained. When Christianity became the religion of the State, the State assumed the care of schools, together with the care and support of churches. Education became a constituent part of the general church establishment. Though funds for the support of churches, hospitals and schools were very largely contributed by private individuals, these institutions, and especially the schools, were always under the control of the church established by law. At the Reformation, the school system became a part of the church establishment, under the control of the authorities of the parish, and the intermediate schools and universities were, in various modes, brought under the control of the State and church united.

When the North American colonies were settled, the State church system was adopted as a matter of course. What are now common schools were then substantially parish schools, the minister of the establishment having a predominant influence in their administration. Academies and colleges were organized on a similar principle. They were put under the control of persons connected with the established church, and became an essential part of its means of influence and control over the public mind. They were supported partly by taxation and partly by voluntary gifts from charitable persons.

When religious equality was introduced, and the church establishment set aside, the educational system was at first but little affected by the change. The academies and colleges, which had been founded by general taxation, were left in the hands of the denomination that had originally formed the established church, while the State gradually withdrew its fostering care. As new colleges and academies were established from time to time, occasional appropriations for the support of the new institutions were made by the State; but no settled line of policy was marked

out, and these appropriations were dependent upon the accidental composition of the Legislatures. In the common schools the teaching of church catechisms was gradually laid aside, and the reading of the Scriptures at the opening of the school, either with or without prayer, was all that survived of the distinctive denominational teaching that originally permeated the instruction.

With the overthrow of church establishments in the States, after the Revolution, colleges and academies were mainly left to the voluntary support of philanthropic men; while, by common consent, the care and maintenance of the common school was assumed by most of the States as absolutely necessary for the maintenance of the civil order under a system of universal suffrage.

By degrees, objections were made to the religious instruction still retained in the common schools. It was claimed that they were supported by taxation, and that persons of every phase of belief, or disbelief, had equal rights in the control of their administration. This claim is clearly gaining acceptance, and now, for good or for evil—I do not say which—the common school supported by the State tends, like the State, to become secularized so far, at least, as is possible in a country whose institutions, laws and literature, are saturated with Christianity.

TWO POSTULATES AND WHAT THEY IMPLY.

Two postulates are now gaining, or have gained, acceptance among the great majority of our people. One is that the common school, supported by taxation, is necessary to the well-being and permanence of the State. The other is that, tax-payers having common rights, these schools should be so administered as to do no injustice to the religious convictions of any citizen. The duty of the State to furnish an intellectual and moral education in the common school is accepted on the ground of self-preservation. As, by common consent, the giving of religious instruction stands outside of the functions of the State, it follows that this duty falls upon the parent, the church and the Sunday school, under the natural working of the voluntary principle. It being conceded that it is the duty of the State to maintain the common school, the question now arises, what is the limit within which the State may assume to educate? We answer:

1. As the common school is supported by a common tax upon the body of the people, education at the expense of the State should be carried only so far as the great body of the tax-payers can make it available for their children.

2. On the principle of self-preservation, also, the State cannot, and

should not, provide education at the public expense beyond that which can be made available for the great body of our juvenile population.

3. This principle would justify special appropriations for the training of common-school teachers in academies and normal schools, if it can be shown that the law of supply and demand, acting through institutions supported on the voluntary principle, will not furnish teachers in sufficient number and with sufficient education to meet the necessities of the case.

4. Hence, professional education and high liberal training necessary for the professions should not be undertaken by the State, because this education is for the benefit of but a very small and special class of the community, and can also be better provided for by the natural action of the law of supply and demand. This principle of exclusion from State support will apply to special schools for the training of farmers, mechanics and engineers just as really as to institutions for the training of lawyers, physicians and clergymen. This principle also renders it illegitimate for the State to provide a general liberal education, at the public expense, for officers of the army and navy. The law of necessity, which justifies the support of schools for strictly professional training, such as those at West Point and Annapolis, does *not* justify the State in giving to their pupils such general culture as is merely preliminary to the study of the profession of arms. Competitive examinations among the graduates of our colleges and scientific schools would furnish a superabundance of candidates for the army and navy, who would have sufficient discipline and acquirements to enter at once upon those studies that strictly belong to the military or naval profession. Two years' training of such men thus selected would give us officers for the army and navy of broader culture and higher professional attainment than can be secured under the present system.

5. The State — as an organization with powers limited mainly to the protection of life, property and personal liberty — may not undertake to teach what belongs to the domain of conscience. In so doing, it transcends its legitimate sphere. High education cannot be adequately conducted without the discussion, in the way of acceptance or denial, of God, the soul, the objective sanctions of morality, and all the forces which bind a man to God. As this high education, in order to be scientific and thorough, is conversant with the sphere of topics which involve religious and moral principles, it should be referred, like religious beliefs and modes of worship, to the action of the voluntary principle. This would exclude from the charge of the State, except for giving the power to hold corporate property and confer degrees, all collegiate and professional education.

HIGH EDUCATION — HOW IT SHALL BE PROVIDED.

Upon whom, then, does the duty of providing for high education rest? Usage and common sense have, in our own country, answered the question: Upon individual and corporate benevolence, acting under the general laws of the State, which define the limits and powers of religious and benevolent organizations generally.

In accordance with the principles thus laid down, it will be seen that the voluntary principle, as applied to the support of religion, includes the exposition and application of the moral and religious bearing of all the great modes in which theists claim that God has revealed Himself to man. We believe that God has revealed Himself:

1. In the constitution and course of the material universe.
2. In the existence and organization of the human mind and the human conscience.
3. In those special social laws, common to man, which underlie the State, and determine and limit the action of men in providing for the protection of life, liberty and property in human societies.
4. In those supplemental moral and religious revelations made to man, as a responsible being, to prepare him for a pure and holy life here and hereafter.

Now, no one of these modes in which we assume God to have revealed himself to man, can be scientifically discussed without touching vitally the question of the being, and the nature of God — the existence and laws of the soul — the origin of moral distinctions — the right of the State to punish — the grounds of the rightful authority over men of civil, criminal, constitutional and international law. This holds true regarding educators who, like Vogt and Büchner, dogmatically deny the existence of God, or who, like Spencer and Comte, deny the possibility, even if a personal God exists, of his revealing Himself to man. The ideas of God, the soul and the sanctions of moral law, are too deeply rooted in all forms of human thought to be ignored. The instant we pass from the elements of knowledge, mechanically accepted on authority, to the causes, reasons and underlying laws of things — from the apprehension of mere isolated facts to the grand domain of science, we must accept God, the soul, and the moral constitution and government of man and the universe; or deny them.

These modes of revelation — as we have designated the phenomena of the material and moral universe — are so co-ordinated in the relation of means and ends, causes and effects, phenomena and laws, that they are each parts of one great system. No one of them can be adequately understood without an estimate of its bearing on the whole. By consequence, each and all of them are factors in all sound scientific method,

and, positively or negatively considered, enter, as necessary and constituent elements, into all high education.

While I hold that the elements of knowledge, such as are taught in the common school, may be taught and learned without serious and scientific discussion of these points of controversy, this is not true of the subject-matter of high education. These questions to-day occupy a larger space in all treatises on general science than ever before. To illustrate what I say you have only to take up any modern treatise on method, or any treatise on fundamental questions in general scientific inquiry. These subjects come to the surface in any thorough discussion of the nature of the certainty which results from the inductive process — in the discussion of the origin and character of those uniformities to which we give the name of “law” in physics or natural history — in fixing our conceptions of the origin of force — in settling the nature of those necessary truths that lie at the basis of the science of quantity — in determining the ground of the sacredness of contracts, as involved in the necessity and universality of moral distinctions. These topics are discussed in magazines, newspapers, and works of fiction even, with such boldness and freedom that the teacher who fails to attack them must either be inexcusably superficial or neglectful of his professional obligations.

THE QUESTION OF TO-DAY.

The question before our profession to-day is this: Shall the young men of the future be trained in scientific methods, so called, which assume a godless universe and deny the reality of all distinction between mind and matter; or in a method which finds an infinite mind as the bottom thought of all science and moral law, incarnated in all history, in all jurisprudence, and in every form of social order?

The obligation to furnish on these subjects instruction which shall be sound and healthy, rests upon our higher institutions of learning; and the duty cannot be discharged with the highest efficiency and freedom where the institution is entangled by obligations to respect the opinions or prejudices of the great body of voters, as must necessarily be the case when an institution depends on taxation for its support, or has been endowed by State patronage. This is no question of mere sectarian propagandism. It involves the inculcation of belief in an objective moral order which must affect the whole moral cement of society, the spirit and character of our political philosophy, the ethics of commerce, the foundations of law. I make no charges against State institutions, and the able and right-minded men who so generally control them; but, if I do not greatly mistake, they will find more and more difficulties in the discharge of those obligations which are imposed upon them by a due regard for their convictions of the being of God and the substantial

existence of the human soul. Those considerations which lead to the exclusion of religious instruction from the common school apply with much greater force to institutions for high education supported and controlled by the State. Those principles of our government which deny to the State the right or the duty to teach or to control religion have a broader application than is generally admitted. The voluntary system for the support of religion not only excludes the State from the maintenance of forms of belief or worship; but also from the maintenance and administration of those higher forms of scientific education which are necessarily conversant with the very foundations of all morality and all religion.

STATE PATRONAGE.

It is obvious that, if the State undertakes the work of high education at all, its patronage should be distributed among existing institutions on principles which shall approach, at least, proportion and fairness, taking into view the excellence of their work and the constituency which they represent. But since the State has withdrawn its support from colleges considered as a part of the State church system, government patronage has been distributed with little or no regard to any system or law. Land grants have been made to the new States at the expense of the older. While the older States have borne the burdens of war or purchase attendant upon the acquisition of the public lands, the general government has granted to these States comparatively small amounts of the land thus acquired. Where special appropriations have been made by the several States, they have been distributed with little or no regard to the service that institutions have rendered to the cause of education, or to any principle of fairness or proportion whatever. The State, or municipalities under the sanction of the State, have given large sums to a very few colleges in the State of New York, while others, with equal claims in every particular, have been entirely neglected. Some have received public property by millions, others little or nothing. There has been a gradual approach, of late, to the policy of withdrawing State patronage from higher institutions of learning altogether. This tendency has been due to a vague recognition of the principle that high education should, like religion, be left to the control of the voluntary principle. If this principle shall be thoroughly adopted by the general government, it will preclude any future appropriations of public lands for the benefit of institutions of higher learning in the new States and Territories. It will set aside the project, so warmly entertained by many, of establishing, at the public expense, a great national university in the city of Washington. In fact, the discussions that have arisen out of this proposal have drawn special attention to the whole policy of establishing and maintaining State universities. The result of such

discussions can hardly be doubtful in its bearing upon the establishment of any new State institutions.

A distinction should here be made between institutions for educational purposes and appropriations made by government for the advancement of science, and for purposes of general public utility—such as the coast survey, the geological exploration of States, and scientific experiments and investigations which meet a public and universal necessity, but are so expensive as to be beyond the capacity of private individuals or institutions.

DANGERS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

A popular argument in favor of the control of high education by the State is drawn from the great number of colleges established on the voluntary principle, and the alleged imperfection of the instruction which they impart. Regarding this objection, we have to remark that there is something besides State endowment necessary to the success of an institution of learning. We are not aware that the institutions established in the newer States, and endowed by those States or the general government, have been especially conspicuous for their services to high education, either with reference to the numbers that they have educated or the breadth and solidity of the instruction imparted. The University of Michigan is generally cited as an example of the success of State institutions, in contrast with those founded on the voluntary principle. But this institution is an exception to the general rule, and stands out conspicuously among many comparative failures. Every one familiar with its history knows that its early growth was slow, and its very existence has been brought into jeopardy by quarrels over its administration by parties, sects and the advocates of different systems of opinion.

One of its most successful presidents informed the writer, a few years since, that he was under the necessity of spending a large portion of each winter in attendance on the Legislature, for the purpose of preventing legislation interfering with its internal working, or in some way inimical to its interests. Much of its large patronage is due to the fact that it gives professional education to lawyers, doctors, miners and engineers gratuitously at the public expense. This course cannot be defended upon any sound principles of political philosophy. The danger apprehended from State interference with institutions mainly endowed by public funds is illustrated in the different attempts that have been made, by constitutional enactments, to exclude the State of New York from control of the large public property given to Cornell University. The immense grant made to Columbia College by the authority of the State took the form of a gift, and neither the State nor the city of New

York has ever been represented, as such, in its board of trustees. Hence its internal administration has not been interfered with by the public authorities. But as a general rule throughout our country, the literary managers of State institutions have been in a state of chronic trepidation lest their best efforts should be rendered nugatory by the caprices of unintelligent legislation. We see no reason to suppose that the Congress of the United States would be any more successful in the administration of a great university than they have been in the government of the District of Columbia, the management of Indian agencies, or the freedmen's bureau.

Looking over the numerous State institutions in our country, we believe that, taking them as a whole, they show no better educational results than those colleges that have owed their origin to the voluntary principle. It is obviously impossible, under a government in which religious and political parties make themselves felt in every department, to secure instruction as broad, as free, as untrammelled in such institutions as in those under the control of the voluntary principle. Before the rebellion, moral philosophy could not have been taught in an institution controlled by the general government; nor could a political philosophy founded upon the principles of the Declaration of Independence, have been taught; nor could the doctrines of constitutional law, represented by the decisions of John Marshall and Joseph Story, have been set forth and applied in their integrity. The doctrines of political economy have, for half a century, entered as factors into every presidential election, and no scientific economist would have been free to utter his own convictions, and to impress them upon his students, if he had taught under governmental patronage. Even now, the means of reaching a sound currency, and the propriety of a protective tariff, enter so intimately into party politics that an institution supported by the national government would hardly find itself free in announcing the clearest results of scientific inquiry respecting those subjects. The restrictions that were necessarily imposed upon the discussion of moral, political and economical philosophy at West Point and Annapolis, showed their results to every thoughtful observer at the beginning of the late war. Nothing is clearer than the fact that government control over institutions of higher education in Europe has been constantly made use of to secure or maintain the ascendancy of political and religious parties. Many of the results which we deprecate in an established church have shown themselves in State control of high education.

SECTARIAN COLLEGES.

I am aware of the persistent ridicule — not to say misrepresentation — which has been expended upon what the opponents of the voluntary

system have been pleased to call "sectarian colleges." They forget that there may be a sectarianism of skepticism and irreligion as positive and as bitter as any that exists within the limits of religious denominations. As a general rule, it is not true that the colleges of our country have been used as instruments for propagating the tenets of religious sects among their students. Such a charge, indiscriminately made against those who control the American colleges that have derived their main endowment from religious denominations, may be justly designated as slanderous. No man acquainted with the broad-minded, liberal and learned men who have the control of these so-called "sectarian" institutions can, either intelligently or honestly, charge them with using their positions for sectarian purposes in any legitimate sense of the term.* No thoughtful man can ignore the work which such "sectarian colleges" as Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Dartmouth, Columbia and Brown have done for the country. These have all been predominantly controlled by some denomination of Christians, and they represent to-day the highest type of our intellectual growth. They have saved us from educational barbarism. They have adopted into their curriculum every new science which has established any just claim to recognition. They have been nurseries of public morality and of an exalted patriotism. They have given tone and elevation to our literature. They have furnished an education distinctively American—a better preparation for American public life, whether political, professional or mercantile, than can be furnished by any institutions in the old world, however broad and comprehensive their courses of instruction may be. They furnish the ideal to-day which the newer institutions of the country, established under State patronage, are painfully and laboriously striving to realize.

MORE CENTRALIZATION.

But we are told that our institutions of higher learning ought to be centralized. We answer: A country like ours, in which local self-government so predominates, never can, and never should, be brought under the control of a single type of culture. Our country's intellectual life ought not to be shaped from any State or intellectual center. Such a

* With reference to the point now under discussion, Superintendent Ruffner, of Virginia, says:

I am persuaded, after careful examination, that the usefulness and popularity of a college are not necessarily diminished because it is controlled by a particular denominational influence. If properly managed, this simply secures an earnest and *peaceful* religious influence over young men under circumstances in which it is especially important that they should have it. Whilst, on the one hand, the home teaching and influence in religious matters may be sufficient for children whilst going to school at or near home, and whilst on the other, the mature young man who goes to the university may be trusted to keep himself under wholesome influences, the immature youth who goes from home before his habits have become firmly established, needs to be placed under guaranteed influence of the most healthful sort; and there is nothing better than the homogeneous habits and spirit of a denominational college.

state of things would inevitably destroy the freedom, the variety, the manifoldness, which is one of the best characteristics of American society as contrasted with that of France and England. The gymnasia and universities which are planted in every little State, and almost every considerable city of Germany, have done more than any thing else to impart vigor and tone to the German intellect, and give it a cosmopolitan breadth and many-sidedness. We should bear in mind that even the English university — the accepted type of centralization — is but a congeries of separate colleges, each having its own endowment, its own type of culture, and even its local associations with different parts of the United Kingdom.

But we are told that there are too many colleges, and that this result is due to the voluntary system. In a free country, how can this be helped? There are just now too many banks, too many railroads, too many ships, too much iron; but the law of supply and demand is the only possible corrective for the evil. If a college attracts to itself patronage and endowment, it has a right to live; if it does not, it will die. The law of natural selection applies to colleges as well as to the animal and vegetable world. A college that does good work creates its own patronage by its elevating influence over the community around it. Time alone can determine whether a college has a right to live. All permanent institutions are of slow growth. The healthiest institutions of our country have sprung from the smallest beginnings. Tried by the standard which men seek now to apply to the newer colleges of our country, Harvard and Yale would have been abated as educational nuisances when they were a century old. When Williams and Amherst were established, the friends of Harvard thought there were too many colleges, and threw every available obstacle in the way of the new institutions.

THE AMERICAN COLLEGE.

It should always be borne in mind that a discrimination should be made between institutions — like the German gymnasia and the typical American college — which contemplate giving a certain degree of culture preparatory to professional study, and institutions — like the University of Berlin — which are a mere aggregation of professional schools, presupposing an elementary liberal training on the part of all those who are admitted to their lectures. Our American college is an indigenous growth, adapted to our population and wants, which cannot be replaced by any exotic system unadapted to our intellectual soil and climate. Its best results are secured with a comparatively small number of pupils under a discipline that is personal and paternal. It may be questioned whether some of our older and larger institutions are not, by their very size, outgrowing the training functions proper to the American college;

and whether, in their efforts to compass the results and imitate the processes of the great continental universities, they are not losing sight of the most important duties which, from the nature of our educational system, necessarily devolve upon them.

We may not hope to give elevation and solidity to our education by transforming the typical and indigenous American college into a bungling imitation of the European university. Let us give life and vigor to our present system, and when public opinion will justify it, add to our college curriculum advanced courses of study for all those who have the time and means to pursue them. We shall thus preserve the college as the place for disciplining the mind and forming the character, while we shall ultimately provide additional instruction for all who have a special vocation for scholarship or science. We shall thus secure professional schools for literature and science which shall take the place, relatively to the college course, that is now held by the schools of law, theology and medicine. Let us also require a college course, or its equivalent, as a preparation for the professions, and there will grow up gradually, around all our well-endowed colleges, a collection of *real* professional schools which shall meet all the demands of the highest culture in the great departments of human thought and investigation.

No patriot or lover of learning will ever undervalue the labors and sacrifices of those pioneers in education who, in our new States or growing populations, are laying the foundations of institutions of learning which in future decades may shed around them the richest moral and intellectual blessings. The rapid increase of our people, and the new distribution of our population, which results from our constantly developing railroad system, forbid the possibility that a few centers of education, however largely endowed, shall satisfy the intellectual wants of the future.

We believe that, in the future development of the wealth and intelligence of our country, the voluntary system, which has been so satisfactory and successful in the maintenance of religion, will be abundantly able to meet all the demands of higher liberal and professional education. We would then confine State provision for education to the common school, and to institutions that may be found necessary to train teachers for the common school. We have the most implicit faith that the individual benevolence of the country will, in the future, give to those institutions of higher learning which show themselves worthy of it, an endowment beyond any thing that the present century has seen. Men of wealth will soon learn, that he only can secure a place in the memory and affections of coming generations who links his name and fortune to institutions for the moral and intellectual elevation of his fellow-men.

THE ELISIONS TO BE OBSERVED IN READING LATIN POETRY.

By ROBERT B. FAIRBAIRN, D. D., LL. D.,
Warden of St. Stephen's College.

Andrews, in his Latin Grammar (section 308), says that "it is generally supposed that the final letters elided by synalœpha and ecthlipsis, though omitted in scanning, were pronounced in reading verse." The grammarian has stated this as a general opinion, without adducing any testimony of the ancients to sustain the opinion. The opinion to which he gives expression, is, therefore, a fair subject of investigation.

I. Quintilian does not sustain the doctrine of Andrews. He says: "The letter *m*, when it terminates a word, and is in contact with a vowel at the commencement of the following word, so that it may coalesce with it, is, though it is written, hardly expressed; as *multum ille, quantum erat*, so that it gives the sound almost of a new letter, for it is not extinguished, but merely obscured, and is, as it were, a mark of distinction between two vowels to prevent them from combining." (Lib. xi., cap. iv.) He says again: "Vowels very frequently coalesce, and some consonants are elided when a vowel follows." (Lib. xi., cap. iii.) It is to be observed, first, that Quintilian says that the Romans did elide a vowel, and that the letter *m* was almost dropped under certain circumstances, and was made to coalesce with the vowel which followed. It is to be observed, second, that he is not referring to the reading of poetry, but of prose. It is the orator of whom he is treating. It is the smooth and melodious pronunciation at which the orator should aim. It would seem that he took it for granted that in reading poetry the elisions were necessarily made. A writer on the pronunciation of English might speak in similar terms of words ending in *ed*, and say that we were in the habit of eliding the *e* in condemned and baptized; but it would not authorize the inference that we made no elisions in poetry. Quintilian, therefore, it appears to me, fails to sustain the doctrine of Andrew's Latin Grammar. I wish to maintain, in opposition to the grammarian, that the Romans, when they read their poetry, observed the elisions.

II. My first argument is that the analogy of the literary languages of the world leads us to suppose that the Romans made the elisions. I take the Greek first. I open the Odyssey at random. I take the first line my eye falls on:

Ἐνδ' αὖτ' ἄλλ' ἐνόησε θεα γλαυκῶπις Ἀθήνη."

A letter is elided from each of the first three words. We lose three syllables by the process. Instead of having *εῖθα αὐτε ἀλλὰ*, we have *εῖθ' αὐτ' ἀλλ'.* It is not left to our choice in Greek. It is done for us. No one would be so presumptuous as to supply the omitted letters and the omitted syllables, and thus destroy the rhythm.

I open a French poem, that of Corneille, and I find the same :

“Ah ! si je t'avois cru je n'aurois pas de maitre ;
Je serois dans le trone ou le ciel m' a fait naitre.”

Here again we lose two letters and two syllables from the first line, and one from the second.

I open almost at random a German poem :

“O denke mein,
Bis zum ferein ;
Aus besserm sterne,
In jeder ferne;
Denk' ich nur dein.”

Here again we lose a letter and a syllable.

I open Scott's *Lady of the Lake*, and elisions are at once visible. I select the following :

“Who backward shrunk to 'scape the view,
Who o'er the herd would wish to reign.”

Or again :

“Hear'st thou, he said, the loud acclaim,
Till at advantage ta'en, his brand,
Forc'd Roderick's weapon from his hand.”

I take the following from a recent translation of *Dies Irae* :

“Rest my soul (no pray'r availing),
While 'fore lasting flames 'tis paling.”

I take another from Pope's translation of the *Odyssey* :

“First marched the heavy mules securely slow,
O'er hills, o'er dales, o'er crags, o'er rocks they go.”

Here in one line we lose four letters, and of course as many syllables. We cannot open to any page of Greek, French, German or English poetry without encountering numerous elisions. The same is true of Italian and Spanish verse. It is a simple fact that on every page of poetry in these languages, elisions are made. We never think of restoring the letters in reading. It would be denounced at once as barbarous.

III. My second argument is that rhythmical composition requires it. If the elisions were not regarded the rhythm would be destroyed, and the very purpose of rhythmical composition would be lost. Writers on poetic composition generally agree that the peculiarity of this composition consists in language; it does not consist in imagery only. The same imagery may be introduced into prose composition, and it fails to

produce the effect which is sought to be produced by rhythmical composition. It is the rhythm which constitutes the peculiarity of the composition.

The Greek, French and English which I have quoted are hexameter and heroic verse. The hexameter, as you all know, consists of six feet. The greatest number of syllables of which it can consist is seventeen; and the least thirteen. There may be five dactyls and one spondee, or there may be five spondees and one dactyl. The English heroic consists of ten syllables, and the usual addition of what we call rhyme. Any ten syllables, with complete ending in the same letters, would not be accepted as heroic verse. There must be the succession of long and short syllables. There must also be a cæsura near the middle of the line; and the line must close with a rising inflection of the voice. Take the following, from Pope:

Know thou thyself, presume not God to scan,
The proper study of mankind is man,
Placed on this isthmus of a middle state
A being darkly wise and rudely great, etc.

Or take the following, from Gray's Elegy:

The boast of heraldry, the pomp of pow'r,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike th' inevitable hour,
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

It will be observed that the art of the poet consists in the proper and peculiar arrangement of long and short syllables, and the proper placing of the pauses.

Know thou thyself, presume not God to scan.

Here there are two distinct propositions; we can hardly avoid the pause and the inflection. If we take the next line we find that the cæsura is too near the end and hence a defect.

The proper study of mankind is man.

But the next is perfectly formed:

Placed on this isthmus of a middle state;

Here is no pause in the sense, but there must be a pause in the voice. It is this which measures it and makes it verse. Now it is just in this arrangement of the words that the skill of the poet is shown; and it is to carry out this purpose that he resorts to elisions. Thus take the two lines of Gray's Elegy:

The boast of heraldry, the pomp of pow'r,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave.

Read these without the elisions and the rhythm is gone; the poetry has vanished; it appears as plain prose. Gray, in order to have the right

number of syllables, and the right quantity, turns power into pow'r, and ever into e'er. This is what the Greek, the French, the German, and the English are aiming at by means of elisions. They leave out a syllable; they cut off a letter in order to get the right number of syllables in their line, and the correct rhythm.

We find the same means made use of in Latin verse, in order to produce the same results. The words are selected with the utmost skill to accomplish this. Just as in the English two vowels are sometimes united in one for the sake of quantity, and a syllable is cut off in order that the line may be brought into the right number of feet. This is most manifest in lines in which the sound and meaning correspond. This is all accomplished by the succession of long and short syllables, and the skillful conjunction of vowels and consonants. Take this line, *Georgic* 4: 174,

Illi inter sese magna vi brachia tollunt.

Read it without the elision and nearly all the force and beauty of the line are destroyed.

Take the following from *Æneid* 3: 658,

Monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lumen a demptum.

So again, *Æneid*, 3: 193,

—— *Coelum undique et undique pontus.*

Read these without the elisions and we have no verse; the rhythm is gone; it is only plain prose. If these lines are to be read without the elisions, the poet has put himself to a very great deal of unnecessary trouble. He has selected and put together, with very great skill, words which mean nothing and were intended for nothing as far as the rhythm is regarded.

—— *Credat Judæus Apella,
Non ego. — HORACE.*

The writers of some of the great Christian hymns of the middle ages have shown their appreciation of elision by providing against it, just as we do in many cases in English poetry. They introduced rhyme. When we sing,

O sweet and blessed country,

We do not mean to say that we have given up the practice of elision, but in refusing to do so in this line and putting an accent over the *e*, we acknowledge the doctrine. Such was the practice of some of the Christian poets of the Latin church. Thus the *Dies Irae* opens:

*Dies iræ, dies illa
Solvet sæclum in favilla
Teste David cum Sybilla.*

The poet did not write the line to be read with the elision. Read it without the *um* and we destroy the measure and harmony of the line just as effectually as we should were we to read,

O sweet and blest country,

just as effectually as we should were we to read,

Illi inter sese magna vi brachia tollunt

without eliding the *i* in *illi*.

We read them in both cases so as to maintain the measure, the quantity, the rhythm, the verse. The old Latin monks, therefore, just as clearly teach the necessity of elision as Virgil did when he wrote "*Monstrum horrendum*," etc.

IV. I shall now introduce the testimony of two great English writers of the last century. The first is Lord Kames. He says in his *Elements of Criticism*: "What can be more different as to melody than the two following lines; which, however, as to the succession of long and short syllables, are constructed in precisely the same manner."

Ad talos stola dimissa et circumdata palla.

Placatumque nitet diffuso lumine coelum.

In the former the pause falls in the middle of a word which is a great blemish, and the accent is disturbed by a harsh elision of the vowel *a* upon the particle *et*."

The second is from the great Dr. Samuel Johnson. He is on his dying bed, but he maintains the elisions among his last words. Boswell says: "On another day after this, when talking on the subject of prayer, Dr. Brocklesby repeated from Juvenal,

Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpore sano,

and so on to the end of the tenth satire; but in running it quickly over, he happened, in the line,

Qui spatium vitae extremum inter numera ponat,

to pronounce *supremum* for *extremum*, at which Johnson's critical ear at once took offense, and discoursing vehemently on the unmetrical effect of such a lapse, he showed himself as full as ever of the spirit of the grammarian."

It will be observed that the substitution of *supremum* for *extremum* — this word beginning with a consonant — prevents the elision of *ae* in *vitae*, which gives one syllable too much and produces the "unmetrical effect" at which Johnson took fire.

I think I can venture to say that had Boswell read to him from Andrew's Grammar that the final letters "omitted in scanning were pronounced in reading," Johnson would immediately have given up the ghost and expired in disgust.

HISTORIES OF LITERARY INSTITUTIONS.

A number of histories of literary institutions hereto appended were presented to the Convocation in response to a paragraph contained in a circular issued by the chairman of the executive committee, under date of November 20, 1875, of which paragraph the following is a copy:

“As the year 1876 marks our national centennial, it is especially fitting and desirable that concise, but comprehensive, histories be presented by the various literary institutions of the State at the next Convocation; histories which may embody the results of experience in founding and managing institutions of learning; in the various modes of teaching, both scientific and literary; in the multiplication of courses of study; in the development of scientific departments of instruction; the comparative merit and patronage of the scientific and classical courses; the introduction and place of physical culture; the expediency of offering prizes; the policy of marking and of compulsory attendance at chapel; the problem of female education; all matters of local interest which may be specially acceptable at our State Convocation, but which would be appropriate and interesting for the centennial year.”

R. B. WELCH,

Chairman.

RUTGERS FEMALE COLLEGE.

By Professor DANIEL S. MARTIN, A. M.

The history of this institution is, in a very important sense, the history of higher education for women in the city of New York. As such, it has a degree of interest quite beyond the personal and local attachments that gather around every educational center, or the simple value of its record as one of the institutions of the State. For over one-third of a century it has been, and still is, the only incorporated institution for young women, realizing, or even approaching, the aim of collegiate instruction, to be found in the great metropolis, or, with a single exception, in the south-eastern third of the State. During the past decade, while several female colleges have been planted by wise and liberal hands elsewhere in New York, yet this whole great section of the State — the oldest, and by far the most populous — south of Poughkeepsie and east of the "Central Lakes," must look to Rutgers as the only institution where young ladies can pursue a college course or receive a college degree. Nor is this all; its influence reaches out beyond the boundaries of New York, and draws in pupils from New Jersey on the one side and from southern New England on the other. If its financial resources were only commensurate with the importance of its position, no institution could ask or hold a more weighty educational influence.

COL. HENRY RUTGERS.

It may be interesting, in the first place, to make some reference to the character and history of the man after whom the institution was originally named, Col. Henry Rutgers: although he himself had died before the foundation of the old institute, yet there is no question, from his whole spirit and character, that he would have felt a deep and hearty interest in such an enterprise.

Briefly stated, the facts of Col. Rutgers' life are as follows: He was of Dutch extraction, his grandfather having come over from Holland, and occupied the farm on the east side of Manhattan island, since known as the "Rutgers estate." On this farm Henry Rutgers was born in 1745. He received the degree of A. B., at the age of twenty-one, from King's (now Columbia) College; and a few years later, entering the army, served through the war of the revolution. He was present at the battle

of White Plains, but other details of his military career are not readily attainable, save the fact that he bore the rank of colonel.

His personal traits were remarkably attractive. He was a man of great purity, piety, trust in God, prayerfulness, and liberality. He served the Reformed Dutch Church as an elder for many years, laying down that office only at his death.

Among many interesting incidents that are recorded of Col. Rutgers, the following may well be mentioned: It was his wont, on every New Year's Day, to gather to his house all the children of the neighborhood to receive some gift, together with a book or tract, and he would then address them, with great affection and great judgment, on religious themes. In so doing, he seems to have anticipated, by his own private action, the Sabbath school festivals that have since become so marked a feature of our modern church activity.

Col. Rutgers never married, but adopted as a son and heir the late William B. Crosby, of New York. He died in 1830, at the age of eighty-five.

It was not, therefore, until eight years after his death that the institution, named in his honor by his adopted son, was organized. But it is easy to judge, from all his character, how strong would have been his sympathy with so important an agency of Christian culture.

ORGANIZATION OF THE INSTITUTE.

The original act of incorporation passed the Legislature of the State of New York on the 11th of April, 1838. The number of trustees prescribed in the charter is fifteen, and the first board consisted of the following gentlemen: Isaac Ferris, president; J. K. Herrick, secretary; Wm. H. Falls, treasurer; Joseph Hoxie, J. K. Hardenbrook, Z. Ring, Thomas Williams, Jr., James Rowe, Jared L. Moore, Marinus Willet, Wm. H. Crosby, Irad Hawley, Samuel Akerly, Thompson Price, John H. Williams.

The board was divided into three groups, of five members each, holding office for three years. No limitations were made in respect either to religious preferences or to residence; and no official control or association in any form, whether of the State, the city, or the system of public schools, was provided or contemplated in the charter, save the general supervision exercised over all incorporated institutions of learning in the State, by the Regents of the University.

The election of trustees was to be from and by a body of stockholders; such being the form in which, before the application for a charter, the plan for organizing the proposed institution had been shaped. Further details of this preliminary organization will be mentioned hereafter.

ORGANIZATION OF THE COLLEGE.

The new charter, changing the name of the institution to Rutgers Female College, passed the Legislature April 11, 1867, precisely nineteen years from the passage of the old institute charter.

The organization of the board of trustees was not thereby altered; but their powers underwent important modifications. The board is now authorized, in the fullest form, to confer upon students at graduation the usual college degrees, and also to bestow such honorary degrees, etc., "as are granted by any university, college, or seminary in the United States," with the exception of such diplomas as entitle their recipients to practice medicine, law, or other specific professions. The literary and honorary powers of the college are, therefore, of the very amplest kind; but professional training is neither sought nor intended, as a part of its present work.

LOCATION.

The site finally selected, after careful consideration, was a series of three lots on Madison street, near Clinton, offered by Mr. Crosby, and forming part of the old estate of Col. Rutgers. The location in the seventh ward was agreed upon in the original plan of organization, the object sought being the establishment of a female seminary of high grade in what was then one of the choicest portions of the city. The particular site, thus chosen, was central to the region in view, and eminently fitted for the objects and uses of the institute.

REMOVAL UP-TOWN.

In the course, however, of less than a quarter of a century, the immense changes taking place in the character and distribution of the city population, necessitated a change also in the location of the institution. The select classes of American residents, that had so long occupied the seventh ward, were now, for the most part, driven out and replaced by a foreign population of far different social standing. In 1860, therefore, it was found needful to remove the institute; and after careful search a site was chosen in that part of the city known as Murray Hill, on Fifth avenue, between Forty-first and Forty-second streets. Here an unrivaled position was found, in the heart of the best portion of New York, and facing the Croton reservoir, with its adjacent gardens and open grounds, and consequent free access of sunshine and air.

The old edifice was then sold; the lots reverted to the Crosby estate, and the buildings on the new site, altered and enlarged for the purposes of the institution, have been occupied to the present time.

DESCRIPTION OF BUILDINGS.

The building now used by the college is that known as Nos. 487 and 489 Fifth avenue. Its front portion was originally constructed for private residences, forming the center of a block of peculiarly built Gothic houses, designed to produce, as a whole, a striking architectural effect. On the rear, the building opens directly into a large extension, covering the width of three lots, and having the form of a hemi-octagon, about fifty feet wide and forty feet deep. This addition was built for the institution in 1860, when the new site was chosen. It is of brick, five stories high, besides a basement and sub-basement. These five stories are occupied as follows: First floor, college chapel; second floor, chapel gallery and library; third floor, general hall or class room of the college; fourth floor, academic school; fifth floor, art department. The front building is also of brick, five stories in height; the ground floor is an entrance hall; on the second floor is the president's room, and the remaining stories are used for recitation rooms. Between the front building and the rear extension is an open circular space or rotunda, with a spiral stairway from basement to top.

The original building, erected for the institute on Madison street, was of brick, with a syenite front, of plain Tuscan order, and three stories in height. It was purchased, and has since been used, by the Roman Catholic denomination for the purposes of a school.

BENEFACTIONS.

The institution has never been the recipient of either public grants or private benefactions, save that, prior to becoming a college, it shared, with the other incorporated academies of the State, in the distribution of the "Literature Fund," thereby receiving a small amount annually. As the colleges do not participate in this fund, nothing has been obtained from this source since 1867.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The origin of the institution, the plans of its founders, and the changes brought about in the progress of years, form, of course, the history of the institution in much of its most interesting aspect.

At the time of its inception there were in the city of New York two incorporated institutions, both for young men. Columbia (formerly King's) College, dating back to colonial days, and the University, which had been in operation for some eight years. For the daughters of the metropolis there were only the public and private schools, many of them excellent, but not affording the higher degree of culture desired by those of more advanced ideas. At the beginning of 1838, a number of residents of the eastern part of the city met to consider this want, and

to devise measures for its supply. This meeting resulted in the adoption of the following agreement :

"Whereas, there is a great want of suitable places for the thorough education of Young Ladies in the Seventh Ward, and the rapid increase of the intelligent population makes this destitution more severely felt every year. The undersigned hereby combine to form an association for raising Thirty Thousand Dollars, in shares of One Hundred Dollars each, for the purpose of forming a Female Academy in the Seventh Ward, to be known as the *Rutgers Female Institute*, in which a complete course of useful education shall be given ; to be under the management of a Board of Trustees, one-third of which shall be elected each year. These subscriptions to be binding when Fifteen Thousand Dollars shall be subscribed, and payable in such sums and at such times as the Trustees shall direct.

New York, February 9th, 1838."

After this action the Legislature was applied to for a charter, and upon the passage thereof, and the adoption of by-laws and articles of agreement, the newly-constituted board issued a circular, of which the opening sentences sufficiently present the views and purposes with which the enterprise was begun :

"The efforts to establish this institution have had their origin in the desire to secure to the large and increasing population in the eastern section of this city, more abundant advantages for the education of their daughters than have been heretofore enjoyed. There are at present in the wards which will be immediately benefited, a population as large as that of some of our most important cities. The Seventh ward embraces 21,481 ; the Tenth ward 20,926 ; and the Thirteenth ward 17,130 ; and if we add portions of the Sixth and Fourth wards, which will be contiguous, we shall have an aggregate of about 70,000.

"It is well known that many persons within this range have sent, and continue to send, their daughters to the western part of the city to find such schools as they desire, and thus subject themselves to inconveniences of no inconsiderable character. The time has undoubtedly come when this should not be necessary ; there is strength and intelligence and liberality enough in this section to endow such an institution as shall be all a parent can ask, and at the same time a fountain of sound knowledge for many years to come.

"It is a happy circumstance in beginning such an undertaking, that there are admirable models in several parts of our State, especially in Albany, Troy, and Canandaigua. From these, whatever is adapted to the circumstances of the case, will be copied ; while the plan of the Albany Female Academy will be constantly in view."

The venerable Dr. Ferris, who was active in this movement, and was chosen the first president of the board of trustees, had resided for some years in the city of Albany, as pastor of the Middle Dutch Church. On being called to the Market Street Church of New York, he brought into important exercise, in the latter city, the knowledge that he had acquired of the workings of the Albany Female Academy. The obituary of Dr. Ferris, prepared for the Convocation of 1873 by his colleague,

Prof. B. N. Martin, of the University, recalls these facts in an interesting manner. It was the warm and hearty sympathy which Dr. Ferris had felt for the Albany institution, that led him to take so strong an interest in establishing a like seminary in New York, while his success and usefulness in the management of Rutgers, led to his selection for the leadership of the University, to which his latter years were given.*

From the quarter-centennial address of the first principal of the institute, Dr. Charles E. West, now of Brooklyn, L. I., the following summary is gathered of the early steps of its organization and growth. After describing the preliminary movements, resulting in the act of incorporation, and the adoption of the site, Dr. West says:

"The corner-stone of the edifice was laid, with appropriate exercises, on the 29th of August, 1838, on which occasion his Honor Aaron Clark, then mayor of the city, delivered an interesting address.

"The building having been completed, it was opened with suitable exercises, in the presence of a crowded assembly, on the 27th of April, 1839. The devotional exercises were conducted by the Rev. John M. Krebs, D. D., and the Rev. Dr. Haight, now of Trinity church. Remarks on the importance of female education were made by the Hon. Benjamin F. Butler, and the dedicatory address, the leading feature of the occasion, was delivered by the president of the board, the Rev. Dr. Ferris.

"Circulars containing the names of the faculty and the course of study in the various departments, had been printed and widely circulated. On Monday morning, May 6, 1839, the doors were opened for the reception of pupils.

"Valuable cabinets of minerals, shells, and medals were formed. These were obtained by donation, purchase, and exchange. A valuable donation of geological specimens was received from the Museum of Leyden, Holland. The cabinet of medals, purchased by Professor Wyatt, is one of great interest, the pecuniary value of which has greatly increased. The collection consists of the heads of the Roman emperors, of the popes, of the sovereigns of France from Pepin to Louis Philippe, and heads of the kings and queens of England, heads of the presidents of the United States, and of other distinguished individuals. These medals are cast in bronze and white metal. A library of 4,000 volumes of well-selected books, many of them works of reference, was also purchased, which largely contributed to the improvement of both teachers and pupils.

"From these statements, the growth and character of the institution may be seen. It was a splendid success. One month after the opening of the school, the number of pupils was 320, and during the second quarter it increased to 450. In the second year, so straitened was the institution for the accommodation of its pupils, that it was found necessary to erect an additional three-story building, for the laboratory, French, and drawing departments. This only furnished a temporary relief, for soon the demand was greater than the limited seats it could offer, and at one time there were seventy-five applicants for admission

* It is interesting to observe that the Packer Institute of Brooklyn, and the Buffalo Female Academy, were in turn modeled after Rutgers Institute, a few years afterward.

who could not be received, and who were compelled to wait for vacancies to occur."

From this time the institute enjoyed a long and unbroken course of usefulness and prosperity, under Dr. Charles E. West as principal for twelve years, Dr. D. C. Van Norman for six, Dr. C. H. Gardner for one, and Dr. H. M. Pierce from 1858 till after the change of its charter.

In 1860, as has before been said, it was judged that the time had come for the removal, which had been foreseen for some time as an approaching necessity.

The changes of population in the lower wards of the city, and the vast development of the "up-town" region, alike indicated this course as essential to the perpetuity and success of the institute. It was not adopted, however, without opposition from some of the older friends and trustees, and regret on the part of many more, who yet perceived it to be unavoidable. The institute had been long an object of pride and affection in the old seventh ward; around it had gathered rich memories of both the living and the dead; and its success had been marked and happy in the old location. These and various like considerations made the change a source of regret and even objection. An old landmark of the palmy days of the lower "East side" was to be removed; and the place that had known it was now to know it no more.

But such an institution must of necessity follow the movements of the community on which it depends for its support, and to which it is adapted in its methods and aims. The foreign population that, like a new "barbaric invasion," has gradually and irresistibly overspread the older portion of the city, would, ere long, surround the institute with a class having little acquaintance or sympathy with its objects, and for whose educational wants the free public schools of the city would be, in all respects, suitable and sufficient. At the same time, the class of students from whom the institute drew its support, and for whom it was designed and arranged, would be constantly removing to a greater distance, and could no longer either sustain it or profit by it.

After careful inquiry and search, the location on Murray Hill, described above, was decided upon by the board and the principal, and the needed alterations and extensions were made. At the twenty-first annual commencement, June 28, 1860, the removal to the new building was publicly announced by the then principal, Dr. H. M. Pierce, and the trustees' circular for the next academic year, with a view of the new edifice, was issued to the friends of the institute.

The removal was effected during the summer vacation; and the usual course of instruction was begun in the new building September 12, 1860. The bright prospects under which this movement had thus far advanced were soon shadowed, however, by the cloud of civil war that darkened

and broke over the nation during the winter of 1860-61. Upon many institutions of learning, the financial and social difficulties of that time fell heavily, and Rutgers was not exempt. With no permanent funds, it depended solely upon the patronage of the intelligent public; and, at this time, the expenses attending the removal from the old building and the fitting up of the new one placed it in a peculiarly exposed position. A period of financial difficulty now set in, which lasted for some years, during which, however, the work was constantly carried on, though in the face of trials to which the institution had been a stranger before.

In 1864, there occurred an occasion of great interest in the history of the institute, viz., the celebration of its quarter-centennial. In accordance with the desire of many who had held connection in various ways with the institution, a circular was issued by the board of trustees, bearing date April 10, 1864, and announcing a reunion of all former trustees, teachers, and graduates, in the institute chapel, on the evening of the twenty-fifth commencement day, June sixteenth. This circular was sent to all those above described that could be reached, and was responded to by the personal attendance of over 350, and by letters from many more who could not be present. The occasion was naturally one of the deepest interest, in its reuniting of long-severed ties of friendship and affection.

The venerable Rev. Dr. Ferris, the first president of the institute, and who had held that position for seventeen years, until called to the chancellorship of the University of the City of New York, presided over the occasion, and made an address upon the early history of the institution.

The first principal, Dr. Charles E. West, gave an extended and valuable sketch of the organization and progress of Rutgers Institute, from the preliminary steps towards its formation, through all the stages of its subsequent development.

The head of the board of trustees, Rev. Dr. Joseph P. Thompson, responded in behalf of that body, welcoming and congratulating the founders and early friends. [The proceedings of this anniversary, printed in full, accompany this report.]

The next few years passed without any event peculiarly noteworthy, until 1867, when the most important change in the organization of the institution took place, viz., that by which it became a college for women.

At the time of its foundation, the idea that young women could need, or receive, any thing closely corresponding to what is termed among men a collegiate education, was, if not unknown, certainly unfamiliar. The "female seminary" was all that was then deemed needful, even among those who held the most liberal views; and certain it is that many such institutions have imparted to their pupils a kind and degree of culture

deserving of very high estimate, and in many points differing but little from that which young men obtain in a college course. Such was the old Rutgers Institute, and other honored and most useful seminaries for young women in this and other States. But, nevertheless, the public feeling on this subject had made a great advance, largely in consequence of the work which had thus far been accomplished.

Meanwhile, the idea of colleges for young ladies, providing a classical training, and bestowing the ordinary college degrees upon their graduates, had become somewhat familiar through the institutions of this type already in successful operation at Elmira and Leroy, in this State, and others in the West. The noble benefactions and extended plans of the late Mr. Vassar, at Poughkeepsie, had now given a great stimulus to all such views, and the friends of Rutgers began to inquire whether the time had not come for the establishment of such a college in the metropolis, and whether the institution that had led the way in higher female education for the city during so many years, were not alike fit and ready to take a new step and assume a new position. It possessed already a charter, an organization, and an honorable record of usefulness. It had long been, and still was, the only incorporated institution for young women in the metropolis. The multiplication of private schools and seminaries, with the growth of the city, seemed also to suggest a further advance, if the institution would maintain that high and distinctive position which it had held at first. On all these grounds the step seemed wise, fitting, and timely, and application was therefore made to the Legislature for a new charter, giving the former institute the powers and privileges of a full college. The passage of this charter, and its leading provisions, have already been mentioned.

It is due alike to the memory and the services of a lately deceased member of the board of trustees, Jeremiah Burns, Esq., to state that he was very largely instrumental in the successful accomplishment of this important change, he having been among the first to propose it, and having given a very great amount of time and personal attention to the several steps of its progress.

The following extract from the memorial to the Legislature, in which the board requested a change in the charter, may properly be inserted here :

"The object of this memorial to your honorable body, is that the trustees may be granted the privilege of conferring, upon those who have faithfully striven to avail themselves of such facilities as are afforded by an institution of the grade of a first-class college, the official certificate fairly due to their persevering labors and acquirements.

"As citizens of New York, jealous of her honor and well-being, your petitioners feel unwilling that the young women of the city and vicinity should be compelled to forego the opportunities which may here be

enjoyed, and to leave their homes and responsible friends for more distant and more favored places, in order to obtain such an authoritative recognition."

On the passage of the act containing the desired provisions, the president and trustees deemed it wise to signalize the starting of such a movement by calling a meeting of gentlemen interested in education, and whose views were at once enterprising and sound, to consider questions of organization and give counsel and support to the new enterprise. The following circular was therefore drawn up and sent forth quite widely:

RUTGERS FEMALE COLLEGE,
Nos. 487, 489 AND 491, FIFTH AVENUE,
NEW YORK, *April 11, 1867.* }

"The Legislature of the State of New York having recently conferred the powers and privileges of a college upon the Rutgers Female Institute—a seminary which has for twenty-eight years past held a leading position in this city—the trustees are desirous now to present their new plans of organization to friends of education from all parts of the country, in the hope of receiving their encouragement and approval. They have, therefore, decided to hold a meeting of gentlemen prominent in religious and literary circles, to mark the transition in the character of the institution, to inaugurate its new and enlarged course, and to receive suggestions for its advancement.

"The trustees feel convinced, on many grounds, that the time for such a forward step in the education of women, has now fully come. Not only does the public sentiment of the community demand it, but the whole nation is stirred by the many questions that arise as to the sphere and influence of woman. The board, therefore, feel that, at this formative period, it is of the utmost importance that the steps taken and the methods adopted, should be such as to influence in the right direction, and in the best and highest manner, the whole system of training for American women, upon whom must ever depend so many of the gravest interests even of society itself.

"Under these circumstances, our earnest desire is that, through the present reorganization and extension, this college may be made adequate both to the greatness of its prospective work, and to the wide scope of its influence in the commercial metropolis of the nation.

"With this design, we propose not only to enlarge the present curriculum, but at the same time to establish a series of new departments, in which full instruction shall be given in several branches which would be eminently useful in the higher education of women. These departments are—one of fine arts, under the supervision of able and prominent artists; one of mercantile and banking business, with the general features of our young men's commercial colleges; and one of what might be called home philosophy, in which the principles of science shall be clearly and carefully applied to a variety of elegant and important uses in the sphere of domestic life.

"The trustees would be grateful for your co-operation in this movement, and earnestly desire your presence at the meeting, which will take place in the chapel of the college, No. 489 Fifth avenue, on Thursday evening, April twenty-fifth, at half-past 7 o'clock.

"The favor of an answer is requested; and should you be unable to attend in person, the board will be gratified to receive any suggestions that may occur to you on the important subject of educating the young women of our country."

On the evening specified, the proposed gathering took place at the college. It was largely attended by the precise class of persons, chiefly literary and college men and clergymen, whom the circular was designed to interest. The first president, Chancellor Ferris, and the first principal, Dr. West, of the old institute, were again present, the former presiding, and both made addresses highly appropriate and interesting. The evening was then given to further discussions upon various aspects of higher female education, and various departments of study which should find place therein. These were principally given by the following gentlemen: Rev. Dr. Howard Crosby, of New York; Rev. President Smith, of Dartmouth College; Rev. Dr. John Todd, of Pittsfield, Mass.; President J. R. Loomis, of the University of Lewisburg, Penn.; Prof. Arnold Guyot, of Princeton, N. J.; and Deputy Superintendent of Education Mr. J. G. Hodgins, of Toronto, Canada.

[The papers and discussions of this meeting, and many extracts from valuable and interesting letters, were published in full in pamphlet form, and accompany this report.]

After this meeting, the work of organizing the course of studies for the new college was entered upon by the president, faculty, and trustees. A number of the gentlemen who had manifested particular interest in the enterprise, and whose suggestions or experience were deemed likely to be of value, were requested to serve as an advisory board, and thus was constituted the following body of counselors and friends:

Asa D. Smith, D. D., LL. D.	President of Dartmouth College, N. H.
Rev. Jesse Page	Atkinson, N. H.
Rev. Edward N. Kirk, D. D.*	Boston, Mass.
Rev. H. C. Potter, D. D.	Boston, Mass., now of New York city.
Rev. Leonard Bacon, D. D.	New Haven, Conn.
Prof. Daniel C. Gilman	Yale College, Conn., now of Baltimore.
Rev. Richard B. Thurston	Stamford, Conn., now of New Haven, Conn.
L. P. Hickok, D. D., LL. D., President of Union College	N. Y., now of Amherst, Mass.
Rev. Joel Parker, D. D.*	Newark, N. J.
Rev. Albert Barnes, D. D.*	Philadelphia, Penn.
J. R. Loomis, D. D., LL. D., President of the University at Lewisburg	Penn.
Rev. Alfred Owen	Detroit, Mich.
Hon. Hugh L. Bond	Baltimore, Maryland.
George W. Samson, D. D., President of Columbian College	Washington, D. C., now of New York city.
Francis Lieber, LL. D.*	New York city.
Prof. Charles A. Joy, Ph. D.	Columbia College, New York city.

* Deceased.

Prof. Benj. N. Martin, S. T. D., New York University, New York city.
 Prof. John J. Owen, D. D., LL. D.*... College of the City of New York.
 Prof. Roswell D. Hitchcock, D. D..... Union Theological Seminary.
 William M. Evarts, Esq., LL. D..... New York city.
 Rev. John Thomson, D. D..... New York city, now of Scotland.
 Rev. Stephen H. Tyng, D. D.*..... New York city.
 Rev. Howard Crosby, D. D..... New York city.
 Rev. Alexander R. Thompson, D. D., New York city, now of Brooklyn.
 Rev. Joseph T. Duryea, D. D..... New York city, now of Brooklyn.
 Rev. Joseph Holdich, D. D..... New York city.
 William H. Raynor, Esq..... New York city.
 Hon. E. B. Hart..... New York city.
 George E. Baldwin, Esq.*..... New York city.
 Francis M. Bixby, Esq..... New York city.
 Charles E. West, M. D., LL. D..... Brooklyn, L. I.
 Rev. Wm. Ives Budington, D. D..... Brooklyn, L. I.
 Rev. Theodore L. Cuyler, D. D..... Brooklyn, L. I.

The careful and extended labor that was given to the work of organizing the course of study, etc., embodied itself in the catalogue and curriculum published in the summer of 1867. It was not supposed that that programme could be carried out in full for some time, owing to the lack of previous preparation on the part of students, and various other hindrances. But it was proposed to begin at once upon such parts of the new course as should be found practicable, and to advance step by step towards its more complete realization. With this view the college began, and has continued in the face of many and various obstacles, to the present time. The course has been somewhat modified on several occasions, according to the dictates of experience; but its leading features have been retained in most respects. [The present programme of studies, and that of 1867, accompany this report.]

No college degrees were granted by the institution until the commencement of 1870.

The precise work done, the changes in the board and faculty, the financial experiences, etc., during the ten years through which the college has now pursued its way, have been set forth from year to year in the regular reports made to and published by the Board of Regents. It is neither necessary nor practicable, within the limits of such a sketch as this, to review in detail the events of this period. It is enough, perhaps, to say that the institution has had to contend with great difficulties that were not expected at the start. Financial burdens have pressed heavily upon it, and have of necessity retarded and limited its work. The lack of preparatory schools, too, such as fit young men for definite and well-known college standards of admission, has been found a serious difficulty, and has prevented satisfactory classification of students in many cases. But, in the face of these and other obstacles, the college has kept on its

* Deceased.

way, and has been enabled, with the blessing of Providence, to accomplish, it is believed, a highly important work, which may yet reveal itself as of greater moment than it may have seemed to have at the time.

The several occupants of the presidency of the college during the period, have been since the resignation of Dr. Pierce, George W. Samson, D.D., 1871 to 1873; Charles F. Deems, D.D., 1874 to 1875; Thomas D. Anderson, D.D., 1875 to the present time. During the college year 1873-4, the institution was without a president, its affairs being directed by the executive committee of the board of trustees. Prior to the opening of the following session, the Rev. Dr. Deems had accepted the office, but to the great regret of all concerned with the college, his health proved unequal to the task which he had auspiciously begun, in connection with the pastorate of his important church, and he was under the necessity of resigning before the close of the year. From that time until the session of 1874-5 closed, ex-president Samson, whose administration of the college had been most highly appreciated, again acted as the head of the faculty.

In conclusion, it is fit, perhaps, that this record should contain a word of reference to the future. With such a past, hallowed by the labors and the memories of good men gone, and with 500 graduates to rise up and call her blessed, Rutgers Female College hopes that there is before her a yet wider field of usefulness and promise. In time, it is firmly believed, means will be provided to remove her burdens and enlarge her capacity, and that the great metropolis will yet have reason for pride and congratulation in a Christian college for its daughters, that shall stand unsurpassed among the institutions of the land.

A SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF THE TROY FEMALE SEMINARY.

By its late Principal, Mrs. JOHN H. WILLARD.

Of the trophies laid on America's centennial altar none will have more value than those which relate to her institutions of learning. Harvard, Yale, Union and Columbia are her pride and glory. They and kindred colleges have made the men who have made the country. Where people govern themselves, where they are sovereigns, they must be educated. It is education that saves a republic; and it is quite as much due to American women as to American men that this republic has lived to see the hundredth anniversary of its birth. Side by side with the universities for young men has been an educational institution for young women which has exercised a powerful influence in qualifying the wives and mothers of the country for their duties and responsibilities. The Troy Female Seminary established a grade of study for women superior to any before it in the history of the sex. It is the outgrowth of an institution founded by Mrs. Emma Willard in Middlebury, Vermont, among the Green mountains, near Middlebury College, in the year 1814. Without endowment, without aid, as a private enterprise, it became national in its patronage and as a social agency. It was developed into the ideal institution which had been the growth of years of study. Mrs. Willard founded her seminary in the hope of making it a permanent model institution. It was the vigorous germ which gradually unfolded into the Troy Female Seminary. Mrs. Willard's own character was the unconscious influence, the quickening energy which created the institution. From the plan which she originated came its vigor and success, while still in her own hands, and its growth and development under the charge of Mr. and Mrs. John H. Willard. Her purpose was the elevation, the perfection of womanhood by the harmonious combination of intellectual education with æsthetic culture, recognizing in her system the complex nature of body, mind and spirit, and the peculiar exercises required for the development of each.

Mrs. Willard's preparation for this great work will appear in the following extract from a memorial of her presented to this Convocation in 1870: "For two successive winters she attended the school of Dr. Miner, of whom she wrote, late in life: 'Dr. Thomas Miner, physician, president of the State Medical Society, and one of the most learned

men of the country, awakened my powers, stimulated my mind, developed unexpected energies, and I believe that no better instruction was given to girls, in any school at that time in our country, than by Dr. Miner as principal of the Berlin academy.'” She studied with him Webster’s grammars, Morse’s geography, and composition.

Mrs. Willard was a noble type and representative of her age and country. She came from the best Puritan blood, was cradled in New England’s early heroic days, molded there in the manner of the pioneers of the highest American civilization; nourished, amid its hills, to those stern virtues which gave dignity and grandeur to her character. In one of its quiet village homes, under the shadow of the church and the school-house, she received her first grave lessons of spiritual and intellectual truth; at its fireside learned trust and obedience, endurance and energy; becoming thus possessed of the extraordinary moral power which was the most important element of her success in her great life-work.

In her youth New England had already rebelled against the rigor of those laws which prescribed to every man his mode of action, and was discussing the principles of right and wrong as applied to life and manners. Every man, woman and child, was eloquent, at times, in the expression of solemn spiritual convictions. The new republic had just been purchased by the bold struggles of the revolutionary war; the fresh memories of all that it had cost in suffering, in deeds of daring, and in martyr’s blood, and the inestimable value of the constitutional liberty it secured, thrilled the hearts, and quickened the utterances of those zealous patriots. Such influences in childhood, cultivated Mrs. Willard’s superior natural gifts, developed the independence of thought and action, the intense patriotism, and rare conversational powers which, later on, so eminently characterized her.

Her father, Samuel Hart, was descended from Thomas Hooker, one of the founders of Connecticut. Her mother was Lydia Hinsdale, of a family of talents and moral worth. Her father was a man of marked abilities, good early education, intellectual tastes, and high moral excellence. He was prominent in church and State, until the prevailing spirit of intolerance caused him to withdraw from office in defense of truth and justice. While Mr. Hart read to his family and discussed with them the metaphysics of Locke and Berkeley, the poetry of Milton, Young, and Thompson, choice fiction, history, and travels, he was the best educator of the mind of his daughter.

The union of his manly strength and independence, with the practical energy of her gentle, loving mother, in all the interests and pleasures of home, early led her to those ideas of the place and power of the sexes in the social economy which Mrs. Willard maintained in all her

future influence. She believed that "each in distinct spheres is useful and honorable."

Thus trained it was natural that Mrs. Willard should become one of the profoundest thinkers of the times, and that the philosophy of the mind should be a favorite study.

Mrs. Willard first received pupils in her private residence in Middlebury, and commenced a family school, with advantages for the cultivation of the social and domestic virtues. She set up an altar to God, committed her institution to the guidance of the Holy Spirit, gave impetus to the moral forces, and made the Bible a text-book, tasking her highest powers in the study of it, and never allowing the teaching of it to pass to a subordinate instructor. She arranged the hours of study of exercise, meals and sleep, according to the laws of health. The school was founded on principles sound and broad, and always administered by one mind, so that it advanced in an uninterrupted course. The range of studies was similar to that of the colleges, with less of the classics, and including music and drawing.

In selecting and arranging the studies the laws of the mind were observed. Those subjects were placed first in the course which were addressed to the senses and the perceptive faculties; the more abstract were reserved to the last. She regarded the cultivation of the senses as of special importance to women. The hand also received much attention. It is an instrument which they must use with skill in the peculiarly practical duties of their sphere. The hand was, therefore, educated with great care. The mind was rested by passing from one study to another, which exercised different faculties. Not more than three studies at a time were allowed, and they of a different character. For instance, mathematics, history, and one of the languages. Besides these severer subjects, some lighter exercises, as drawing, music or penmanship, were interspersed. The pupils were classed according to their proficiency. Every faculty of the mind had subjects addressed to it especially adapted to strengthen and develop it.

The result sought was a well-balanced mind. The weaker faculties received the most attention. If one evinced unusual talents for mathematics, for instance, she was little drilled in that branch and more in the belles-lettres, in which she would probably be found deficient. The pupils were required to be perfectly thorough and exact in their knowledge. Examinations were held at the close of each term on every subject, in the presence of gentlemen of education. These examinations were sufficient stimulus to effort. Success on those occasions was the reward of faithfulness; there was no need of prize or other reward.

As a teacher, Mrs. Willard aroused the minds of her pupils, excited the attention and engrossed it until the subject was understood, and an

enthusiastic desire to pursue it made a moving impulse to study it. The love of knowledge for its own sake, for the interest in the subject which had been awakened by the teacher, was considered a higher motive for study than a prize. She possessed great magnetic power over their minds, inspired an enthusiastic love for any thing she taught them. She made the subject so interesting that there was nothing so pleasant as to study it. It was the love of study for the love of knowledge. She held that there were three stages in learning any subject, which were, to understand, to remember, and to communicate or to reproduce it.

The pupils with whom the school opened were high minded, enthusiastic young ladies of unusual talents, who were in entire sympathy with Mrs. Willard in her plan for the elevation of woman by superior education. They were the daughters of scholarly men and cultivated women of high social position, such as Judge and Mrs. Aldis, Governor and Mrs. Van Ness, Governor and Mrs. Skinner, and the brilliant sisters of Bishop Henshaw. They were determined to master the high intellectual subjects which it was their privilege to study, while they became as elegant in person and as agreeable in manners as the dolls of fashion who had no mental attractions; and in this they were encouraged by their parents.

Mrs. Willard's tastes and brilliant conversational powers gave a literary bias to the entertainments of their social circle. Not unfrequently a poem, a colloquy or a play acted or read would enliven the evening sewing circle. Life lessons were discussed, true principles of action inculcated. The poets of the then new school, Wordsworth, Coleridge and Southey, attracted much attention from these young ladies. Some made Coleridge's metaphysical works the study of their leisure hours. The studious discipline of such a school life prepared them for future distinction. Miss Aldis, subsequently Mrs. Judge Kellogg, as a student of Coleridge, became fitted for the companionship of her friend, Dr. James Marsh, and other Burlington scholars who were devoted to Coleridge; and no more profound views than those of her metaphysical mind were brought out by that scholarly circle. Later on, Miss Aldis was Mrs. Willard's able associate in writing a history of the Republic of America, for which she was qualified as a patriot as well as a scholar. From her father, Judge Aldis, she had imbibed the spirit of those early days in the new border State of Vermont. Her greater celebrity, however, was as a reasoner and a talker. Few, either women or men, were her equals in these respects. The political influence which she exercised through the gentlemen of the family was sufficient to satisfy the most ambitious of the strong minded women, yet her refined sensibilities would have made her shrink from any office which the ballot-box could have given her.

The seminary was a success. It gave satisfaction. It proved that women were capable of higher education and improved by it. The number of pupils increased to seventy. Parents were heartily in sympathy with Mrs. Willard in her mode of educating their daughters. She had made her seminary a model, but it could not be permanent without an endowment, and public sentiment was not sufficiently enlightened to grant a share of the public funds to the education of women. The seminary had outgrown the size of the building, a change became necessary. Its patrons of Waterford, N. Y., urged its removal to their place, believing that this richer State would grant an appropriation, in which the Governor, DeWitt Clinton, concurred. The seminary was removed to Waterford in 1819. Mrs. Willard made application to the Legislature, accompanied by her plan of female education and a plea for funds. The Governor strongly recommended it in his annual message, but the endowment was not obtained. This application, however, led to the allowing of a portion of the literature fund to girls' schools. At a public examination of the school at Waterford, Miss Cramer, a daughter of the Hon. John Cramer, was examined in geometry, which was the first public examination on that subject ever made by a woman in this country.

Not knowing how much she could do by herself, this failure to obtain legislative aid was a bitter disappointment to Mrs. Willard. Some time afterwards she thus gives expression to her feelings: "I felt it almost to frenzy, and even now, though the dream is long past, I cannot recall it without agitation. Could I have died a martyr to the cause, and thus secured its success, I should have blest the fagot and hugged the stake. It was by the loss of respect for others that I gained tranquillity for myself. Once I was proud of the legislators as the fathers of the State. But when the people shall become convinced of the justice and expediency of placing both sexes more nearly on an equality, with respect to the privilege of education, their legislators will find it their interest to make the proper provision."

Her appeal to the Legislature was premature. The public was not then sufficiently enlightened as to female education. She was so convinced of the importance of the good work in which she was engaged, had so much enthusiasm for its success, and so much confidence in the patriotism of the rulers to adopt whatever would be good for the country, that her hopes and aspirations were too sanguine.

The failure to obtain aid from the State disappointed but did not discourage her. She had the sympathy and received encouragement from the best and most eminent men of the nation. The friends of education generally advocated her plans. Hon. Duncan Campbell, of Georgia, was so much interested in them that he advocated her ideas in the

Georgia Legislature, of which he was a member. She received encouraging letters from distinguished men. John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, George Combe, Dr. Dick and other great men wrote her encouraging letters. Eminent men attended her examinations, and were satisfied that her young ladies were as thorough in mathematics and in other abstruse subjects as the young men of the colleges.

Mrs. Willard finding obstacles to her modes of teaching in the miserable text-books then in use, prepared books in geography and history for her school. Mr. Woodbridge finding the same hinderance, and having the same plan for their improvement, they wrote a work on geography simultaneously. The book attracted attention, and soon passed through several editions. In the preface she writes of the new system adopted : " It is chiefly to secure facility of acquirement and durability of impression. This is effected by maps and charts which appeal to the eye, rather than to the memory. The arrangement of tables relieves the memory of a useless burden by substituting few numbers for many. A person who knows by rote that a city contains a certain number of inhabitants, cannot from that circumstance be said to understand its rank, that is, he does not know whether it is a great or small city ; for all ideas of great or small are relative, and are obtained by comparing things with others of their kind. With regard to the durability of impressions, we discard that method of arrangement generally found in descriptions of countries where many distinct and dissimilar subjects are treated of in quick succession, because from the want of associating principle, information received in this way cannot be well remembered. We admit little which may not be traced to one of these two laws of the intellect ; that the objects of sight more readily become objects of conception and memory than those of the other senses ; and secondly, that the best of all methods to abridge the labors of the mind and to enable the memory to lay up in the smallest compass is to class the particulars under general heads.

" That this method of teaching geography is a judicious application of these principles has become evident to me from observing the fact that of all the branches of study which my pupils learn, geography taught in this manner is that which they most easily call to recollection ; and that this is the case whether my examination takes place after the lapse of few months or few years.

" But in none of the objects of education do I conceive that this system is so peculiar as in that which relates to the discipline of the mind ; and none are, to my mind, of so much importance. Although it is of consequence to teach the student *what* to think, it is of much more importance for him to learn *how* to think. However well it may be for a man to have a good knowledge of geography, yet it is better for him to have

a sound judgment and well regulated intellect. Capacity of mind is acquired by this habit of study, which cultivates the powers of abstraction and generalization. The study of geography has hitherto been regarded as a mere exercise of the memory, but taught in this manner it brings into action the power of comparison, thus laying not only the foundation of good scholarship in the science of which it treats, but of a sound judgment and an enlarged understanding. Although this system has never been published, yet it has been brought to the full test of experiment. It is nearly eight years since I began to teach geography by this method. Intending to publish my plan of instruction I carefully watched its operation in the minds of my pupils, while at the same time I studied it in the most approved system of the philosophy of the mind, and my success in teaching it far surpassed my expectations."

A medal was awarded to Mrs. Willard for her geographical and historical charts, at England's world's fair in 1851.

In 1821, Mrs. Willard accepted an invitation from some of the citizens of Troy to remove her seminary to that city. They prepared a building for the purpose, with private rooms for the pupils, two in each, which were their homes and retired places for study. She paid a rent for this building equivalent to the interest on the cost of the property.

She came to the city with her plan perfected, tested by experiment and approved by experience, with teachers educated by her and familiar with her methods, her own early views developed and matured, and it was established in the building where it thereafter existed, as the Troy Female Seminary.

The seminary was now liberally supplied with teachers. A teacher to every ten pupils was the usual average.

In the earlier stages of the institution little attention was given to the natural sciences for want of qualified teachers and apparatus. When it was removed to Troy, Prof. Amos Eaton, the founder of the American system of geology, became the lecturer on these subjects, and, as was his custom at the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, he improvised apparatus. He and his successors in that institution held that office until they considered it better for the classes to be entirely under the instruction of the lady teachers of chemistry and botany.

In 1837 the Troy Female Seminary came under the direction of the Regents of the University of the State, and received a portion of the literature fund. With this assistance it was furnished with a library, scientific apparatus, maps, models, and many other appliances for illustration. Subsequently Mrs. Willard purchased a very fine, large collection of oil paintings, which did much for the art department.

Illustrations addressed to the eye were in constant use, so far as the subject would admit. Familiar lectures and much oral instruction were

given in the recitation room. Once a week the exercise on each subject was entirely oral, without the use of the text-book. This instruction was written out from memory, and the subject examined on the following day. Much writing was required in connection with every study pursued, as well as independent investigations and original illustrations. Translations were frequently written in order to secure better English than could be obtained in the class room. Good English was a first requirement in all exercises. An original composition was written every week, and instruction in composition was given to the entire school, divided into classes according to proficiency. In the arrangement of the studies, kindred subjects were brought together in groups; for instance, geography, history and literature. Geography was learned by map drawing. No geography lesson was accepted until the map could be drawn in the class-room from memory. History was studied with time maps. An historical period would be selected, its geography learned, its history and literature read, associating its events and characters with their geographical localities and place on the historical chart. As science advanced its scientific character added. Afterwards, a review of the period was made in a written essay. Thus, while the pupil was accumulating knowledge, and fixing it in the mind by association, she was learning drawing and composition. Another group of studies brought together was ancient geography and history, mythology and the Iliad, in the English translation. A small class in perspective was taught by Mrs. Willard from a manuscript lent to her by one of the West Point professors who attended the examination to hear the recitation, and ever afterwards it was a part of the regular course.

The subjoined was the regular course of study:

PRIMARY DEPARTMENT.

Primary studies for three years. — Object lessons; spelling, with dictation, and the analysis of words, as in Lynd's Etymology; reading, with recitation; writing, mental arithmetic and tables; natural history, elementary botany, geography, grammar, French and German begun, drawing, music.

INTERMEDIATE DEPARTMENT.

First and second years. — Arithmetic, geography, with map drawing; analysis and derivation of words, Trench's Study of Words, spelling, with dictation; reading, with recitation; composition daily, in connection with the study of words; writing, Latin, French, drawing, music.

Third year. — Arithmetic, physiology and hygiene, history, consisting of a system of chronology and the history of the United States; critical reading of the poets, with written criticisms; writing, composition, Latin, French (music and drawing elective).

Fourth year. — Universal geography, geography associated with history, elements of natural philosophy, grammar and analysis, Shakespeare reading, writing, book-keeping, Latin, Latin composition, French (music and drawing elective).

ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT.

First year. — Algebra, rhetoric, themes; ancient geography, with Greek and Roman antiquities; French, language and composition; zoology, mineralogy, geology. Music, drawing — elective.

Second year. — Geometry, trigonometry, universal history, history of English literature and language, themes; German; botany. Music, painting — elective.

Third year. — Chemistry, Kames' Elements of Criticism, themes; German; natural philosophy, including mechanics, optics, pneumatics, electricity, electro-magnetism; French, Italian or Spanish, voluntary, or as substitutes for natural philosophy. Music, painting — elective.

Fourth year. — Astronomy, intellectual philosophy, moral philosophy, Butler's Analogy, natural theology. French, German, Italian, Spanish, music and painting elective.

BRANCHES PURSUED THROUGHOUT THE COURSE.

The Bible, composition, elocution, gymnastics, dancing, drawing, singing.

LECTURES.

Lectures in the academic and intermediate departments (throughout the course) on topics of history, science, literature, language, art, architecture.

Shakespeare used as a text-book for reading, made the best readers and gave the greatest pleasure to the school, not only to the classes, but to the entire school. Naturalness and spirit in reading were acquired, and the literary taste gratified and cultivated. The teacher selected a play which was read by the class under her instruction — studied — then to each pupil a character was assigned, according to her fitness. The characters were studied. It was practiced in the class, not acted; but each identifying herself with the character assumed, and sometimes with great success. When thoroughly prepared, the play was read, with the full school for audience, and was the most popular exercise of the school routine.

The study of mathematics was considered highly useful to woman. By nature a creature of impulse and feeling, having clear intuitions, but a vague knowledge of truths that are learned from reasoning, she was known to need the discipline of mathematics — to learn from it that there are truths which are necessary, universal, immutable, and she was more open to conviction when any other mode of reasoning was employed; and she became herself more reasonable. She felt the irresistible evidence which each successive step of a chain of reasoning brings, and must admit the truth of the conclusion. Her power of thinking was increased by the exercise of tracing continually the connection between the steps of the long processes. She acquired the power of keeping a subject before the mind until it could be looked at on all sides, and every argument brought to bear upon it.

Physics introduced her to another kind of proof, that of experiment. At other times she was made to feel its force when the mode of reasoning employed probable evidence. Being trained in the different kinds of evidence for different subjects to be examined, she knew how to choose her weapons in any intellectual contest, and thus to be saved from the errors into which, through ignorance, she might fall. She studied enough of physics to learn of the wonderful connection between the grand phenomena of the natural world and the abstract truths of pure mathematics, and to find in that connection one author for the relations of numbers and angles and the phenomena of the material universe.

Metaphysical studies furnish the best gymnastics for the processes of analysis and synthesis. When the nobler principles of our nature assert their superiority and right to culture, mental philosophy and natural theology are agreeable and useful studies for woman. She finds her most exalted range of thought among themes which help her to know herself and the relations which bind her to humanity and to God. Moreover, an acquaintance with the human soul qualifies her to recognize its features in the diverse costumes in which it is clothed by the circumstances of its time and place in the history of the world. The study of its immortality and its capacities for this amazing destiny and of other truths coming up from the depths of the soul's being, and of the nature and laws of the mental and moral constitution, is peculiarly adapted to the life of woman. For to her is committed the mind of man when it comes fresh from the hand of its Creator, with any intimations it may bring with it? If the soul has had elsewhere its setting, and heaven lies about it in its infancy, woman should be fitted not only to make the "child the father of the man" among nature's nobility, but also for those questionings of its innate ideas which will furnish the philosopher with data for his reasonings upon what is in man. Moreover, woman has an implanted principle of curiosity which impels her to desire to know the nature of the faculties of the mind as the instruments used in all the discoveries and acquisitions of knowledge. Secluded, very properly, in the domestic circle from any share in the movements of society, or the logic of events, which cultivate the reflective reason of men, she requires studies that will give her this discipline. She craves to know the laws and limits of human knowledge, what to believe, what intellectual and moral guides to follow. In this institution, therefore, after the pupil's mind has been disciplined and enriched by previous study, her powers of observation and reflection cultivated, all her mental energies quickened by previous preparation, she studied intellectual philosophy.

Æsthetic culture was given through the fine arts, music, painting and

poetry. The beautiful being specially the province of woman, it was cultivated with great care. The standard was simplicity and naturalness. In all things, exactness, finish, perfection, were required; in speaking, well chosen language, purity of tone and accent. In the primary department drawing was much practiced; in drawing maps, in illustrating for the natural sciences, the pupils were always chalk in hand at the blackboard. It was not the imperfect triangle or circle she had drawn, but the ideal perfect one by which she proved her propositions. The fine arts were made educational instrumentalities, in subordination to the intellectual and moral, and in harmonious combination with them. They were taught not only as arts, but as sciences, founded upon those eternal verities which are the life of the soul. They were so studied as to refine and elevate the character, while they gladdened the fireside. The art department was conducted with as much care as if it had been a distinct art school, at the same time receiving the advantages of an institution of learning. The study of art was made a discipline to the mind, and therefore not separated from the higher departments which made it more intellectual, presenting to it a profound and severe standard of excellence. The mind was led from the lower grades of sensuous beauty to the more ideal and spiritual by the processes conferred by the intellectual and moral instructions. In the classes in optics, the laws of light and color, and in anatomy forms and their relations, were learned, and the pupil acquired knowledge which she applied to the intelligent observation and representation of the garment of beauty with which the natural universe is clothed. The art pupil was led to be an earnest seeker of the truth of nature from the simplest outline of a leaf to the highest ideal expression of the moral perfections of man; to be honest, faithful and intelligible in the presentation of an idea, to look for meaning in works of art. She was trained not only to make pictures, but to understand and appreciate them, and to exercise the imagination in forming conceptions of objects and scenes. When the art pupil masters the elements of art study, if she has a heart that kindles with love for the works of creation, and a desire to be obedient to the laws that govern them, she will become an artist in her pictures, in her dress, and in the furniture and appointments of her house, as she applies the principles of taste.

Music was made an avenue to the soul. When the learner is required, in the spirit of obedience and truth, to reproduce in her execution the composer's music, to render truly his notes, the arrangement and expression by which he achieves his glorious results, while she practices to acquire mechanical facility, she catches the strains and her spirit grows, her intellect strengthens and expands by being brought into communion with a great mind. The musical aspirations of the gifted move to joy

and sorrow and praise. It calls into activity devout and holy feelings. Music consecrated to the Deity was cultivated as an incentive to the spiritual life — the simple airs that reach the popular heart to give attraction to home and utterance to the social feelings and affections.

Poetry was embraced in the course of study as one of the best means of cultivating the imagination. Its teachings were at the original fountains of poetry. Homer, Chaucer, Spencer, Shakespeare and Milton were read in classes with teachers who had enthusiastic love for them. The soul-stirring strains of poetry touched the chords of feeling and aroused the mind to its best activity. Every subject was made to receive exaltation from a poetical expression of its truths. The susceptible mind of youth was greatly assisted in its efforts to grasp astronomical ideas by the sublime poetry they have suggested. It aids the imagination and excites the enthusiasm.

One of the advantages for high scholarship at the Troy Seminary was the mature age of many of the pupils. As given in the annual reports to the Regents, seventeen years was the average age; yet there were always many ladies there who had occupied positions of responsibility as teachers, members of society, graduates of other institutions, mistresses of households and wives who felt the deficiencies of their education. They were willing to come, for they were spared, by the arrangements of the seminary, the mortification and annoyance of mingling with younger pupils. The classification, according to proficiency, and the retirement of private rooms for study and living-rooms made them comfortable. The intellectual life was an agreeable change from general society, and to teachers a means of preparation for more extended usefulness. These ladies were useful examples to the younger pupils, as they submitted to the restraints and regular order of the school, sustained the discipline necessary for study, and they evinced their appreciation of the high order of the instruction, and themselves, many of them, became brilliant scholars.

Many of the teachers who have conducted the best schools in the country have gone forth from this seminary. Of these were Mrs. Willard's sister, who was for several years her able assistant in the Troy Seminary; Mrs. Lincoln Phelps, founder of the celebrated Patapsco Institute, Maryland; Mrs. Pierrepont Marks, who made the Barhamville Seminary, South Carolina, eminently useful; Misses Dillaye and Bonney, Philadelphia; Mrs. Hanna, Washington, Penn.; Mrs. Twiss, Augusta, Ga.; Miss Harrison, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss Buell, the associate and successor of Bishop Elliott in his school in Georgia; Mrs. Du Pré and her daughters, Charleston, S. C.; Miss Bascom, Northampton; Mrs. Lay, Montreal, Canada; Mrs. Ogden Hoffman, New York city. These, and a great many other ladies, carried Mrs. Willard's system of education

successfully into the several States. By the appointment of the State, the Troy Female Seminary educated a class of teachers for the common schools.

Mrs. Emma Willard retired from the seminary in 1838, leaving it to her son and daughter-in-law, Mr. and Mrs. John H. Willard. Mrs. J. H. Willard, had been for some years a teacher and a vice-principal in the seminary. She became Mrs. Willard's pupil in early youth, and a teacher at sixteen.

During the sixty years that this seminary was dispensing the blessings of higher education to women, 13,500 pupils were connected with it—8,216 under Mr. and Mrs. John H. Willard. Nine hundred and fifty-six of the pupils went forth as teachers, 100 of these having received gratuitous board and tuition, and many of the remainder paid only a portion of their expenses. A large proportion boarded in the seminary, and in many cases received books, stationery and music without charge. The daughters of the city clergy received gratuitous instruction, and those from other places had large deductions made from their bills.

The reputation of the Troy Seminary brought many visitors to see its workings. Among the most distinguished of these were Lady Franklin and Dr. Scoresby, from England. Lady Franklin had read of the studies pursued in this institution in Van Dieman's Land, when she was there with her husband, Sir John Franklin, governor of the island. Having herself been a teacher, she was curious to see how much girls could be made to do. She visited such classes as she selected, note-book in hand, and marked the recitations she heard, the particular propositions in mathematics, etc. She expressed great surprise and pleasure that girls could do so much on such subjects, and complimented the girls on the refined simplicity of their manners.

In 1841, Sir Joseph Laffan de Hovey came as the agent of Queen Victoria. He came to Troy to visit the seminary, saying, "We have heard that you have got before us in female education, and we wish to know your plans."

Dr. Scoresby came to the seminary when he was visiting this country to see American schools in order to prepare himself to improve those of England. He heard recitations in astronomy and optics, and other branches of natural philosophy, and in the Latin language, and expressed himself highly gratified with the proficiency of the pupils. A visit from the Bishop of Jamaica was very flattering. The excellence of the music department induced distinguished artists to visit the school. Some of these were Wallace, Thalberg, Ole Bull and Strackosh. The greatest visitor was the guest of the nation, General La Fayette. He was received by a song of welcome sung by the pupils and written by Mrs. Willard, which was presented to him by three of the number who

were daughters of the Governors of States, Miss Cornelia Van Ness, Miss Cass and Miss Southard. This led to a correspondence between Mrs. Willard and General La Fayette, and ripened into a friendship.

Eminent scholars, professors, clergymen, and others acting as examining committees for a long series of years, expressed their opinions of the scholarship in the seminary in reports which, it is believed, constitute the highest eulogy which any institution of learning has ever received.

Diplomas were first given in 1843 to those who had passed satisfactory examinations in the full course of study, and had been members of the graduating class at least one year. The number of graduates was small in proportion to the entire number of pupils. This was in consequence of the unwillingness of parents to leave their daughters a sufficient length of time in school.

The following statement contains the number of graduates in ten years:

Year.	Graduates.	Total number of pupils.
1860.....	19	328
1861.....	12	301
1862.....	17	245
1863.....	14	263
1864.....	13	329
1865.....	25	328
1866.....	25	328
1867.....	16	238
1868.....	19	295
1869.....	17	254
1870.....	27	289

In 1872, the building required to be renewed, the library and apparatus to be replenished and increased, and funds to be raised for an endowment, but nothing could be done to raise funds for these purposes unless the authorities of Troy would transfer the property to the trustees. A petition to the authorities, signed by persons representing nearly one-half of the taxable property of Troy, was presented to the common council, and granted on conditions satisfactory to the trustees of the seminary. The resolution authorizing it was vetoed by Thomas B. Carroll, the mayor of Troy at that time. Mr. Willard therefore declined to renew his lease and retired from the institution, and it ceased to exist as a boarding school in 1873, but is continued as a day school of the first order. It is hoped that generous minds of the enlightened future will furnish means to restore it to its full measure of usefulness, that it may again win and guide multitudes of young women into the pathway of excellence by directing their desires and aspirations for the highest good for themselves and their country.

Considering our political agitations, de Toqueville said: "If America is saved, it will be her women that will save her." The reply comes from her women — "It is righteousness that exalteth a nation."

CLAVERACK ACADEMY AND HUDSON RIVER INSTITUTE.

By WILLIAM MCAFEE, A. M.

Claverack was organized as a district in 1772, before the organization of the county, which took place in 1786.

The portion of the ancient territory at present included in the town, formed a part of the Van Rensselaer Manor, and was originally settled by Hollanders and by Germans from the Palatinate.

It may be considered as the original hive of the county, from which its population and that of many of the surrounding counties has sprung. Its well cultivated and fertile fields, with the luxuriant clover, gave it its name of Klauverack, or clover reach, and also led to its becoming a permanent settlement soon after the original discovery of the river in 1609.

In 1700 the population, slaves and all, amounted to but 216 souls. In 1716 a Dutch Reformed Church was organized and a building erected. As its early pastors were men of liberal education, mostly from Holland, it is not strange that they deplored the lack of educational advantages for their own and the children of the flock.

Such a man was John Gabriel Gebhard, or Dominie Gebhard, as he was familiarly called, who began his ministrations on or about July 4, 1776. He himself had been educated at Heidelberg, was a man of scholarly attainments, with much love for classical learning. For a time, in addition to his arduous labors as pastor, being often called for many miles in every direction to minister to churches without pastors, as many of the Dutch churches were during the Revolutionary period, he instructed his own seven sons with the children of some of "the best families," in the ancient languages and higher mathematics.

He soon saw that greater facilities than he could afford must be provided, and in 1777 took measures for the establishment of a high school at Claverack, which was patriotically called Washington Seminary.

The seminary was completed in 1779, and opened with two teachers, Dudley Baldwin for the classics, and Abraham Fonda for the English branches. Dominie Gebhard retained the position of superintendent until his death, and always took an active interest in its welfare. N. Meigs was the instructor in 1780, and was succeeded by Andrew Mayfield Carshore, who wielded the birch for more than twenty-five years, and under whose management the school attained no small celebrity. Attracted

by his genius, aptitude and culture, youth from all the towns from New York to Albany, were instructed by him, and Washington Seminary had at times more than a hundred pupils. This may seem less strange when we remember that schools were few and poor, and that Claverack was then a place of note, being the county town, and the center of a large business in grain. It was also the post-office for Hudson until 1790, that city being known in early days as Claverack Landing.

Dr. Porter, in his centennial address, says: "among those educated during this period at this seminary, were General John P. Van Ness, attorney-at-law and member of Congress, Hon. Wm. P. Van Ness, judge of southern United States district, Hon. Cornelius P. Van Ness, Governor of Vermont, minister to Spain and collector of the port of New York, General Jacob Rutsen Van Rensselaer, Secretary of State of New York and member of Congress, Martin Van Buren, President of the United States, Robert Morris and many others well known in civil and political stations." The building itself consisted of but a single room of one story, with a capacious fire place at either end, and, although the germ of the present institution, bore little resemblance to the stately edifices of to-day.

Toward the close of the first quarter century of this seminary, the death of Dr. Gebhard and other causes, led to a decline in its prosperity, and through a State law it became changed for a time into a common school. Indeed, Dr. Gebhard's death, which occurred in 1825, may be said to be the closing event in the first chapter of the school.

CHAPTER II.

The Rev. Richard Sluyter succeeded Dominie Gebhard, and like his predecessor, fond of learning, soon became a mover for the revival of the seminary. This time it was determined, if possible, to put the enterprise on a more certain basis, and to erect a more pretentious and commodious structure than was usual in those days.

"At a meeting of a number of the inhabitants in the latter part of 1829, convened for the purpose of adopting a plan for the erection of an academy house, it was agreed to accomplish the above object by vesting the enterprise in shares of twenty-five dollars each, upon the following conditions:

"1st. That no stockholder shall ever possess a greater controlling influence than in votes on the directing of any concern of the institution, each share constituting a vote.

"2d. That the building to be erected for the high school of Claverack is designed solely for a place where education may be taught, and shall never be converted to any other purpose, unless, with the consent of three-fourths of the votes controlling the government thereof.

"3d. And that the stock shall be payable, if required, to the authorized

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agents in four equal monthly installments, the first installment to be paid on the 15th day of January, 1830."

The stock necessary to the construction of the building was subscribed at once to the amount of \$1,200, and trustees nominated. The Regents of the University were petitioned to grant a charter, in these words:

"To the Honorable Regents of the University:

"We, the subscribers, have undertaken to establish an academy in the village of Claverack, in the county of Columbia, having purchased a lot and contracted for the erection of a suitable building, to be completed the first of May or June next, feel the necessity of being incorporated. The undersigned humbly pray the Honorable the Regents that the aforesaid academy may be incorporated by the name of the Claverack Academy, nominating as trustees: Abraham Jordan, M. D., Jacob P. Mesick, Stephen Storm, Abram L. Fonda, Wm. B. Ludlow, Robert H. Van Rensselaer, John A. Miller, John A. Labagh, Rev. Richard Sluyter, John Poucher, James K. Van Ness, James Fleming, Stephen Gunn, Jeremiah I. Best, J. A. Van Valkenburgh, William A. Weaver, Jonathan Storm and John E. Gebhard, M. D."

The charter was granted April 25, 1831. At a later meeting, held in March, 1831, the Rev. Richard Sluyter was instructed to open negotiations with the Rev. William Mabon with reference to his becoming the first principal in the new building.

At the next meeting, several references from "gentlemen of distinction" having been handed in and read, concerning Mr. Mabon, they were voted satisfactory, and it was decided to offer him "the academy and all the emolument he may derive from said academy for three years." So Claverack Academy was started fully equipped for another cycle.

No event of importance occurred in the history of the academy until 1839, when the trustees felt that now they were fulfilling all the requirements of the Regents, and ask, on the twenty-fourth of January of that year, to be received under their care, subject to their visitation, and that they may receive a share in the distribution of the literature fund.

The petitioners represent themselves as possessed of a lot of land, value of \$1,000, consisting of one acre and twenty-nine rods. Fifty-seven rods of this ground, the records tell us, were given to the trustees, by the minister, elders and deacons of the Dutch Reformed church at "a perpetual rental of three pepper corns."

The building erected was forty-five feet by twenty-four, two stories high, and divided into three rooms on each floor. It was valued at \$1,700. At this time a library of 284 volumes had been collected, valued at \$186, and philosophical apparatus to the amount of thirty-two dol-

lars. During the year the tuition amounted to \$550, and the pupils furnished their own fuel. There was but one teacher, a graduate of Union College, Rev. John Eizenlord. The pupils were allowed a wide range of study—classical, scientific, mathematical, and English. The whole number of students, during the year, was forty-five, of whom thirty-nine were considered as classical, or higher English.

There was but little change in the status of the academy for the succeeding seventeen years. Its teachers were, for the most part, college-bred, and competent; its income steady, and its attendance good. The trustees interested themselves in securing men of ability, and where the tuition, for any reason, fell short of a fair compensation, met the deficiency from their private resources. The average income during these years was \$522.23, and the average attendance forty-nine. The building was kept in good repair, and the library and philosophical apparatus largely increased. The sphere from which it drew pupils was less extended than during the first period of the school, owing, probably, to the multiplication of academies in other towns, and to the fact that there was no permanent arrangement for the boarding of students out of town.

CHAPTER III.

We come now to the third period in the history of the school. A feeling had taken hold of the minds of some of the people of the town, that a much greater prosperity might be secured for the academy than it had enjoyed.

There were several schools in the State which had recently sprung up, remote from railroad communication, and in localities with no special advantages, which were overflowing with pupils. Committees were sent out to visit them and report.

They were particularly impressed with the school at Charlotteville, then under the charge of Rev. Alonzo Flack, which, during this year, reached the unheard of number, in those days, of 950 pupils, and in the following year of 1,230. Board and tuition were furnished there at the rate of seventy-two dollars a year, which, even for those times, was remarkably low.

Charlotteville was fifty-six miles inland from Albany, to and from which the pupils had to be transported by stage four times a year. Why should not Claverack, with its railroad connections in every direction, its healthful and beautiful location, and a fine farming region from which to draw its supplies, prove a better situation, by far, for such a school than Charlotteville?

So argued the movers in the new enterprise. Chief among these, we may mention here, with all honor for his self-sacrificing and untiring efforts in behalf of the interests of the school, the name of Peter

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Hoffman, who, for thirty-two consecutive years, has been a member of the board of trustees. For fourteen years he was its secretary and treasurer, and for the last fourteen years has been its president.

At a meeting, held October 18, 1853, it was unanimously resolved to increase the capital stock of the building to \$20,000 and subscriptions were opened.

The shares were \$100 each and entitled the possessor to a vote in its management. A petition for the change in charter to allow the trustees to hold this amount of property was voted and a committee appointed to arrange for the erection of the buildings. The stock, owing to the excellent management of the treasurer, Peter Hoffman, ably supported by Milton Martin, Frederick Mesick and others, was soon taken and it was deemed advisable to enlarge the plans and increase the stock to \$50,000. Ground was broken for the new building about the 1st of April, 1854, and every nerve was strained to have it ready for students in the coming fall. Such progress was made that we find in May the trustees are becoming exercised on a most important subject, viz., who shall take charge of the new building when completed and organize the school? Prof. Alonzo Flack's success at Charlottesville made the trustees anxious to secure, if possible, his connection with the enterprise, and in July a contract was entered into by which the building was leased to him, as soon as finished, for five years. The new building was an imposing structure. It had a front of 158 feet, a depth of forty, while wings extended on either side fifty feet. From the center a chapel building of three stories extended ninety feet in the rear. The whole building was four stories with attic and basement finished, and was fitted up with all the appurtenances necessary for such an institution and for the expected number of pupils.

The building was erected at a cost of \$35,220, and was furnished at an additional cost of \$12,583.95, and with library, apparatus and other property was valued at \$51,151.29, on which there was a debt of \$4,750.30, which has been canceled from the rent of the buildings.

On the 10th of October, 1854, the building was nearly ready for occupancy, and that day was set apart for its dedication. The Dutch Reformed Church was filled, and after appropriate religious services addresses were delivered by Rev. Ira Boice, pastor of the church and the first president of the faculty, Hon. Horace Greeley, Elbert S. Porter, D.D., of Williamsburgh, and the Rev. Dr. Ferris, chancellor of the University of New York. The chartered name had, meantime, been changed to Claverack Academy and Hudson River Institute. Its great aim, Mr. Boice said in his opening address, was to be "to store the mind with useful knowledge and to imbue and impress it with the principles of the Bible and Jesus Christ."

This aim has been steadily followed through the subsequent twenty-two years of its history, as the thousands who have received its teachings will testify.

The school opened on November fourteenth with a corps of fifteen teachers in eight departments. Every room was filled, and a number had to find quarters outside. Rev. Alonzo Flack became the lessee, and associated with himself William H. Bannister, and afterwards Charles H. Gardner, who acted as principals of the school for a short time. Prof. Alonzo Flack, from the beginning, had the general supervision, and took up his residence at Claverack as principal, and the direct charge of the school in the fall of 1857. Owing to his excellent executive ability and prudent management, the school has enjoyed an uninterrupted prosperity for these twenty-two years of his connection with it, and we may add was never doing a better work in the educational field than to-day. In 1864, the wants of the institution for more room became pressing, and it was decided to build a second building, which was done from the accumulated surplus in the treasury.

This second building is known as College Hall; is in dimensions eighty by fifty feet, of two stories, and cost \$6,000. The lower story is fitted up as a laboratory and recitation rooms; the upper is in one large, lofty hall, and is used for the gymnastic exercises of the ladies, and the military drill of the gentlemen, as well as for the lectures, public exhibitions, commencements, and other exercises which draw a larger number of people than could be accommodated in the chapel. It will seat comfortably 700. In 1869, another step forward was taken in the history of the institution.

For some years the course of study pursued by the ladies, and the facilities afforded, were the same as those found in the female colleges of the State, and, after mature consideration of the trustees and the faculty, it was decided to petition the Regents to grant them the privilege of conferring degrees on those young women who should finish a course of study corresponding to that prescribed by the Regents as a basis for the other female colleges under their control. In this petition the trustees represent "that an extended course of education for youth of both sexes has been established, embracing for young men all that is required for preparation for the duties of life and for admission to the best colleges of the country, and for young women, a four years' course, fully equal to that of the female colleges of the State; that the said institution has enjoyed uniform prosperity, numbering an average of more than 450 annually, of whom about one-half have been young women; that an average of sixteen professors and teachers have been employed in their instruction, at a sum paid for salaries amounting to about \$17,000 annually; that a good library and philosophical apparatus

have been procured and are in constant use." In consideration of these facts, the Regents were requested to amend the charter, and the petition was granted and the charter so amended on the 4th of June, 1869.

A class was already prepared for graduation in the college course, and received the appropriate degree on July first following. This, with the other departments, has been since that time, and is now, in successful operation.

The grounds have been enlarged by the purchase of adjacent property as opportunity offered, and now consist of about six acres, well planted with trees, which furnish delightful shady walks, with a large campus for athletic sports and the military drill. One thousand three hundred and five volumes of well selected matter are in the library of the institute, and the philosophical laboratory contains more than \$700 worth of apparatus. While it is the purpose of the president and faculty to furnish the best instruction that can be given in the English branches and the rudiments of the sciences, it is also their desire to afford the opportunity to all who wish, to pursue complete courses in literature, sciences, higher mathematics and the ancient and modern languages.

In closing this sketch of the institution, it may not be out of place to briefly mention some of the prominent features of its management and the results that are believed to flow from them:

First. It is believed that the value of a permanent and uniform government has here been demonstrated. The president, Rev. Alonzo Flack, Ph. D., has had the active direction of its concerns for twenty-two years; to his unflagging zeal, not only for the interest of his pupils and the school, but in the interest of all advanced education, is largely due the uniform support and prosperity which the institution has enjoyed. It has been his principle and that of the trustees, to secure the best assistants, and to attach them permanently to the faculty. It is not unusual to find instructors who have been connected with the school for eight, ten and even fifteen years.

Second. We believe we have fully demonstrated here the value of a uniform and regular system of exercise, both for ladies and gentlemen; for the ladies we have adopted the Dio Lewis system of musical gymnastics, with a competent instructor, and for the gentlemen the military drill with a regular organization. Since the adoption of these methods of exercise, there has been a marked improvement in the general health of the students, which is, of course, the first object to be attained. But it is believed that the moral and disciplinary results attained are no less beneficial.

This has been noticed in the greater *esprit de corps*, the more prompt obedience to law and order outside of the drill hall, and the greater

personal dignity and self-respect which is inspired in the individual by these exercises.

Third. It is believed that these twenty-two years have proved that the co-education of the sexes living in the same building and reciting in the same classes is not only possible and feasible but with proper management, is promotive of the best results, intellectual, moral and social, in both young men and women.

Fourth. The theory that young women are unfitted, either by nature or place in society, for a liberal education in the severer studies which are supposed to prepare young men for professional or business life is believed to be erroneous.

Experience has shown us that they are capable of the highest culture, and it has been the aim of the teaching here to provide them with facilities and to encourage them in pursuing a course no less extensive and thorough than that laid down for young men; and, also, thus to aim at superiority in the employments and professions which a more liberal spirit is opening before women, is no less praiseworthy than to shine by a refined modesty and a cultivated mind in the social circles of which they can never fail to be the chief ornament.

Fifth. It is believed that in large institutions wrong sentiments often grow up and become traditional, which are inimical to good government and healthy development on the part of the students. This has been met, and, in a great degree obviated, by the system of forms and form meetings which have for years been carefully conducted by the president. The school is divided into six forms, according to age and general intelligence, and the president meets these forms separately as often as once a week. The meetings are partly devoted to lectures, in an informal way, on matters of etiquette, business, formation of habits, morals and school government. One object is to secure a free expression of opinion on questions of this nature from the students individually, and to correct wrong principles and impress right ones without the appearance of discipline. It is believed that these form meetings have, in this way, been especially valuable in anticipating and breaking down wrong sentiments, and in leading the students individually to a correct understanding of questions of vital importance to them which could be touched in no other way.

Sixth and lastly. In the opening address at the dedication Rev. Mr. Boice said, one great object of the institution should be "to imbue and impress the mind with the teachings of the Bible and Jesus Christ." The principal and teachers have set this before them in their work, and while no denominational bias has been given to the religious instruction the Bible has been reverently held up as the standard text-book in the formation of character and those foundation principles which should

underlie every plan of life. It is believed that this religious character that has thus been given to the institution has been without offense to any, but most beneficial to the mass of those who have come within the sphere of our teaching. It is emphatically believed that the Bible should be our great teacher and text-book.

There is added to this sketch a list of the principals since 1799, of the officers of the board of trustees and the trustees since 1831, statistical tables showing the number of students, the number of classical and higher English students, the amounts paid for teaching and those received from the literature fund since 1831, with copy of the charter granted to the institution in 1831.

PRINCIPALS SINCE 1831.

1831	Rev. John Mabon.	1847	Isaac Wortendyke.
1834	Samuel Fisher.	1851	Gad Lyman.
1835	Samuel T. Andrews.	1853	Rev. John Bell.
1837	Lemuel T. Osgood.	1854	{ Wm. H. Bannister.
1838	Rev. Reuben Dederick.		{ Chas. H. Gardiner.
1839	Rev. John Izenlord.		{ Rev. Ira C. Boice, President.
1842	William C. Hornfager.	1857	Rev. Alonzo Flack, Principal.
1844	Henry Coons.	1869	Rev. Alonzo Flack, President.

SUCCESSION OF OFFICERS IN THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

Presidents.

1831 Abram Jordan.	1848 Frederick Mesick.
1839 John J. Miller.	1862 Peter Hoffman.
1840 Adam Vandeboe.	

Secretaries and Treasurers.

1838 Stephen Storm.	1848 Peter Hoffman.
1840 Jacob P. Mesick.	1862 Frederick N. Mesick.

TRUSTEES WITH THE DATE OF APPOINTMENT.

Original Board, 1831.

Abram Jordan, M. D.	John Poucher.
Jacob P. Mesick.	James K. Van Ness.
Luther Storm.	James Fleming.
Abram L. Fonda.	Stephen Gunn.
Wm. B. Ludlow.	Jeremiah I. Best.
Robert H. Van Rensselaer.	J. A. Van Valkenburg.
John I. Miller.	Jonathan Storm.
John A. Labagh.	William A. Weaver.
Rev. Richard Sluyter.	John G. Gebhard, M. D.

Subsequently elected.

1839 John P. Mesick, John M. Schumaker.
 1839 Peter V. Heermance, Adam Van Deboe.
 1842 Frederick Mesick, Stephen K. Hogeboom.
 1843 Jacob Whitbeck, Franklin Miller.
 1844 Peter Hoffman.
 1846 Rev. Ira C. Boice, William H. Heermance.
 1849 James V. Schumaker, Stephen M. Van Wyck.
 1850 Robert Esselstyn, Abram Pierce.
 1853 Elbridge G. Studley, Ambrose Root.
 1853 Frederic N. Mesick, Tobias R. Van Deusen.
 1853 David Crego, Jr., Wm. H. Chase.
 1853 Milton Martin.
 1858 Alanson Fowler.
 1859 Silas W. Tobey.
 1862 Alonzo Flack.
 1864 Peter Best.
 1865 John Mesick, Edward Livingston.
 1871 Stephen Rossman.
 1875 Abel I. Bristol.

Present Board, 1876.

Peter Hoffman, President.	John Mesick.
Frederic N. Mesick, Sec. and Trea.	Silas W. Tobey.
Alonzo Flack.	Alanson Fowler.
Milton Martin.	Stephen K. Rossman.
David Crego, Jr.	Peter Best.
Elbridge G. Studley.	Abel I. Bristol.

 STATISTICS OF ATTENDANCE AND INCOME FROM LITERATURE FUND AND
 EXPENDITURE FOR TEACHERS FROM 1838-1855.

YEAR IN WHICH REPORT ENDED.	Number of students.	Number of students in classics and higher English.	Number of teachers.	Amount paid to teachers.	Money received from Regents.
1838.....	45	39	1	\$572 54
1839.....	24	34	1	553 00
1840.....	51	No report	2	910 23	\$106 49
1841.....	32	20	1	500 62	102 09
1842.....	35	No report	1	516 00	170 79
1843.....	49	No report	2	579 00	46 11
1844.....	65	42	2	605 68	163 66
1845.....	58	30	1	544 86	127 51
1846.....	49	29	1	524 69	78 41
1847.....	52	28	1	525 46	82 87
1848.....	63	24	1	561 17	78 31
1849.....	63	14	1	565 33	63 82
1850.....	48	28	1	463 18	33 94
1851.....	37	21	2	388 15	34 00
1852.....	50	21	1	219 57	42 97
1853.....	71	28	1	745 51	41 13
1854.....	35	29	1	465 90	49 40

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**STATISTICS OF ATTENDANCE AND INCOME FROM LITERATURE FUND AND
EXPENDITURE FOR TEACHERS SINCE 1855.**

YEAR IN WHICH REPORT ENDED.	Number of students.	Number of students in higher English and classics.	Number of teachers and profess'rs.	Amount paid to teachers.	Money received from Regents.
1855.....	753	16	\$6,550	\$1,289 39
1856.....	463	362	16	6,571	693 99
1857.....	511	492	16	7,575	893 61
1858.....	483	367	14	7,475	712 12
1859.....	562	477	14	7,875	903 03
1860.....	447	404	16	8,212	723 16
1861.....	390	342	16	8,600	603 05
1862.....	362	330	13	7,800	622 66
1863.....	346	309	16	9,664	533 61
1864.....	469	400	17	9,610	710 80
1865.....	462	383	19	14,875	745 48
1866.....	469	270	18	14,020	791 48
1867.....	434	212	19	16,767	765 74
1868.....	318	175	17	17,340	754 06
1869.....	372	174	19	16,866	764 72
1870.....	267	119	20	17,298	614 41
1871.....	274	96	22	16,866	624 48
1872.....	255	99	23	16,811	614 43
1873.....	349	171	29	22,417	677 29
1874.....	315	117	20	21,158	4,133 33
1875.....	242	111	20	19,748	2,168 00
1876.....	202	67	20	20,585	673 51

For the charter of Claverack Academy, see chapter 271 of the Laws of 1831, passed April 25, 1831.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF CAZENOVIA SEMINARY.

By ISAAC N. CLEMENTS.

ORIGIN.

Though the founder of Methodism was an educated man, and placed a high estimate on the general diffusion of knowledge, yet, in the earlier years of the republic, little was done by the denomination towards the establishment of schools of the higher grades. This was not because of any lack on the part of the people to appreciate the advantages of an education, but because, in the condition of society at that time, the ministers and members were filled with zeal for the spread of scriptural holiness, and things of a less spiritual nature were considered of secondary importance.

The first seminary under Methodist auspices was established at New Market, N. H., in 1817. It was continued eight years under financial embarrassment, and in 1825 its buildings were closed and given up. In this same year a seminary was opened at Wilbraham, Mass., and all that remained of the New Market Academy was merged into this. Wilbraham Academy prospered, and to-day stands, in character and influence, among the foremost in the land.

The movement for the establishment of a seminary at Cazenovia was commenced in 1823. Thus it will be observed that this institution was the second established in the United States under the Methodist Episcopal church, and that it is now the oldest existing seminary in the country belonging to the denomination.

At the session of the Genesee conference, which then included all the western half of New York State, held at Westmoreland, Oneida county, July, 1823, it was decided to open the school in the old Madison county court-house, now constituting the time-honored chapel, with all possible dispatch, and a local committee was appointed, consisting of Charles Giles, George Gary, Elias Bowen, Solomon Root, Luther Buell, John Peck, Jacob Ten Eyck, David B. Johnson and Charles Stebbins. The first meeting of this committee occurred August 14, 1823. The name selected was "The Seminary of the Genesee Conference," which has been successively changed to the "Seminary of Genesee and Oneida Conferences," "Oneida Conference Seminary," "Central New York Conference Seminary," and "Cazenovia Seminary," the last being the name it now retains. Charles Giles and George Gary were appointed the first

agents. A resolution was passed that the school should be opened December 11, 1824. And on that day, in the basement of the old court-house, with eight students, it began a career which has uniformly been prosperous.

LOCATION.

Cazenovia village, in which the seminary is situated, is in the midst of one of the most fertile and delightful sections of our State. An elevation of 1,200 feet above the sea gives it a pure atmosphere and a healthful climate, and renders it entirely free from many of those fatal diseases that are so prevalent in a large part of the country. The well-shaded walks and beautiful groves invite to evening promenades; excellent roads and picturesque hillsides afford unsurpassed opportunities for riding, and the Owagena—gem of lakes—furnishes a pleasure spot for those who seek recreation in boating and fishing. Both nature and art have been lavish in their adornment of Cazenovia, and have made it peculiarly adapted to the purposes of a seminary, as it affords the opportunity for æsthetical culture which is so essential to the full development of the youthful mind. One has to see the place but once to admire it ever afterwards.

The inhabitants number about 2,000, and from the first they have been interested in the success of the school, and have been ever ready to give to it of their time and means. The village, lying eighteen miles south-east of Syracuse, is easily accessible from the west and south by the Syracuse and Chenango Railroad, and from the north by the Cazenovia, Canastota and De Ruyter road, which connects with the New York Central at Canastota, thus giving to the residents the privileges of a large city, without its allurements and disadvantages.

BUILDINGS.

The first building, as before mentioned, was the Madison county court-house, which was built in 1810, under the supervision of Col. John Linclaeen and Col. Eliphalet Jackson. In 1817, when the county seat was transferred to Morrisville, it was sold to the Methodists to be used as a church, but, six years after, pecuniary embarrassment compelled the society to appeal to the conference for relief, and thus the way was opened for its purchase as a seminary. The style of architecture belonging to the old court-house, characteristic of the period, readily distinguishes it from the other buildings, but, for durability, it is in no respect inferior to those which have since been added. It was used for recitations and chapel services, and it is still used for the same purposes. When the seminary was first organized there were no dormitories. It was soon evident that more room was imperatively needed, and, in 1831, the building next west of the court-house was added as a dormi-

tory for gentlemen, and a few years later another still further west as a dormitory for ladies. These were made to serve the purposes of the school until 1852, when the building now known as "William's Hall" was erected. This was named in memory of John Williams, who for twenty-six years a trustee, was unremitting in his labors for the institution. This is a commodious and substantial structure, used for lecture, society and reading room purposes. The next change occurs in 1866. In that year the building formerly erected as dormitories for ladies, was replaced by a larger and more attractive edifice for general dormitories, and in 1870 this was still further enlarged by adding another building for the domestic department.

Thus is seen the group as it stands to-day greatly varied in architecture, according to the style of the period and the resources at hand. Though there is not that symmetry that would please an artist's eye, yet the group is so historic, so emblematical of the development of the institution, and so interwoven with the young life of its sons and daughters that the whole structure has become an object of veneration, and all who have thus far been students will regret the change which the growth demands and the loyalty of the alumni contemplates. The proposed change is outgrowth of a movement by the alumni of the seminary as a semi-centennial monument of their love to their *alma mater*. The intention is to raise \$100,000 for remodeling and enlarging the building, and \$150,000 as an endowment fund. About half of this amount has already been pledged. When the plans shall have been accomplished, no similar institution in the country will be in better condition as to its buildings and sources of income.

CHARACTER.

The seminary has always maintained a high character for thoroughness, and no institution in the State ranks higher as to its number of academic students. At present only the high schools of Albany, Buffalo, Syracuse and Rochester, outrank it. The design has never been to make a college of it, although one-half of the so-called colleges in the land, do not equal it in the extent of its curricula, or in the facilities for general culture. Its friends believe that it should be made, even more than it is now, an institution in which the most complete and thorough preparation for our best colleges can be obtained, and at the same time a four years' course of instruction in language, science, mathematics and literature be furnished to such persons as cannot complete a regular college course. It supplies a desideratum in the educational field which no other class of institutions meets. Normal schools cannot pay that attention to languages that is necessary, because their especial work is to fit persons to teach in the common schools. The city high schools cannot

meet the needs of hundreds who have passed through the district school, because such persons have neither the time nor the means at their command to discharge the requirements which such a course would involve. The high schools and many of the academies throughout the State cannot supply the want, because they are not able to multiply classes to such an extent as a full preparatory college course would require. All these needs the seminary, with its varied curricula, supplies. All persons, whether desiring a complete course, or only one or two terms of special study, can here find abundant opportunity to satisfy their need at an expense which all can incur.

It is a boarding-school, and under the efficient management of the present principal, the domestic department is a source of considerable revenue. This feature of the institution is the means of causing many to attend who otherwise would not, and some do not come because they fail to obtain a place in the hall, as their parents are reluctant to intrust them without suitable supervision in a strange place, subject to the peculiar temptations that always assail youth. The wholesome regulations that prevail, such as stated hours for meals, study, recreation and sleep, are found to be very conducive to general health. Many who enter with frail constitutions leave wonderfully improved, physically as well as mentally. The dormitories, dining-room, halls, etc., are good, well ventilated, lighted and heated, and furnish facilities for boarding about 130 students. The rest board in private families, or at their own homes in the village.

The school is mixed. A trial of upwards of fifty years has practically solved the vexed question of the advisability of educating young men and young women together. We believe that the system, as it prevails here, not alone elevates the standard of scholarship, the refinement of manners and the tone of morality, but, in the daily associations in the recitations and at the table, the students learn a thousand and one unconventional forms of etiquette that can be gained only through the intercourse of the sexes. The 13,000 young men and women who have been educated here, are a living commentary upon the wisdom of the plan.

It is eminently a religious school — not sectarian — for, although under the auspices of the Methodist Episcopal church, during its existence several religious denominations have been represented in its board of trustees, its faculty and its students. At the present time, out of the 700 students who yearly tread its halls, over one-half are from other than Methodist patronage. Thousands of every creed have been brought to Christ under the influence of the religious sentiment that has ever existed among teacher and student. On several occasions, so deep and widespread was the feeling that the ordinary exercises were suspended

for the time, teachers and scholars alike giving themselves up to religious duties. Rev. Z. Paddock, one of the early trustees, speaking of such an occasion which occurred in 1829, says, that, as a permanent result of that interest, "twenty years afterwards it was ascertained that fourteen young men, then and there converted, were either presidents of colleges or professors in them, or distinguished ministers of the gospel." The chapel services, the conference meetings, the daily prayer meetings, entirely under the supervision of the students, and other social services have been marvelous in their power of soul culture. Who can estimate the influence for good that goes out from the unselfish lives of those who act the simple faith that they believe?

In the government of the school, respect is paid to the manhood and womanhood of those who are in attendance, yet the students are not left to follow impulse or the leadership of the evilly-inclined; and while alive to the fact that too much supervision and too much restraint would fail in the accomplishment of the desired result, still the authorities aim to exercise as much watchfulness, as much control as is necessary, and nothing more, to form a character which will stand when the scaffoldings are removed.

For years a marking system has been in use, and though it may not be the best that can be devised, yet it has been found to answer a very good purpose in inciting students generally to reach a high standard of attainment. The degree of excellence in study graded according to a scale ranging from zero to 100. The degree represented by a mark of seventy-five is necessary to entitle one to "pass" in any study. Any thing short of this compels the recipient to pursue the branch again in class, unless an arrangement can be made with the teacher for a special examination after a review. No factor enters into this record except excellence in recitation. Demerits are given for immoral conduct and for violations of the regular or prudential rules; but it is to the credit of the institution to say that this power is sparingly used, and only by a vote of the faculty.

TEACHERS.

No small share of the excellent character and remarkable success of the institution is due to the teachers that have been employed. These have been men of high culture, and for the most part persons who have given themselves to the profession of teaching as a life work, thus bringing with them that love for their work which is necessary to success.

It would be interesting and profitable to trace out the labor and anecdotes connected with the lives of many of these, but time—the regulator of all things—allows us only to mention them, but their names merely will be a sufficient guarantee of the earnest work accomplished.

Nathaniel Porter, A. M., of Connecticut, was the first principal, and the following distinguished men have been connected with its faculties: Augustus W. Smith, L.L. D., afterwards president of Wesleyan University at Middletown, Conn.; D. D. Whedon, D. D., LL. D., now editor of the *Methodist Quarterly Review*; Wm. C. Larrabee, D. D., a distinguished educator; J. Wadsworth Tyler, A. M.; John Johnston, LL. D. the author of several text-books on physics and chemistry, and now emeritus professor in Wesleyan University; Wm. H. Allen, LL. D., now president of Girard College, in Philadelphia; George Peck, D. D., the editor, author and preacher; Herman M. Johnson, D. D., afterwards president of Dickinson College; Nelson Rounds, D. D., subsequently president of the Williamette University; George H. Hapgood, D. D.; Henry Bannister, D. D., senior professor in the Garrett Biblical Institute, Evansville, Ill.; Bostwick Hawley, D. D.; Edward Bannister, D. D., afterwards of the University of California; Anson B. Hyde, D. D., now of Alleghany College, Meadville, Penn.; John W. Armstrong, D. D., principal of the State Normal School at Fredonia; J. C. Van Benschoten, LL. D., professor at Wesleyan University; W. P. Coddington, A. M., of Syracuse University; E. G. Andrews, D. D., Bishop of the M. E. Church; Edward Searing, Superintendent of Public Instruction in the State of Wisconsin, and many others equally deserving of mention and equally honorable in life. The principals in their order have been as follows: Nathaniel Porter, Augustus W. Smith, J. Wadsworth Tyler, Wm. C. Larrabee, John Johnson, George Peck, Hanford Colburn, George H. Hapgood, Henry Bannister, Edward G. Andrews, A. S. Graves and W. S. Smyth.

STUDENTS.

It has been said that a "tree is known by its fruits." The same principle might be applied to a seminary, and it is worth while to gather up some of the results of the existence of this one. During the half century of its existence there have attended the seminary about 13,000 young men and women from all parts of the United States and Canada. Among them are those who have filled some of the most prominent positions within the gift of a free people. Legislators, governors, generals, judges, literateurs, millionaires, bishops, have received their early education within its walls. They are found in nearly every habitable part of the globe, not only in the energy and stir of the city, but also on the frontiers pushing on the car of civilization and progress. No human arithmetic can estimate the intellectual and moral power that such an institution exerts through so large a body of alumni. From careful computation it has been found that over 600 young men have been prepared for college here; 3,000 have been converted to God;

1,000 have entered the ministry; 400, the law; 400, medicine; more than 1,000 are successful business men; 1,500 are engaged in teaching in colleges, academies, and other schools; and nearly all pursuing some honorable and useful calling. It is a roll of which the seminary may justly be proud, and which may well bring joy to the hearts of those who have aided in the development of such characters.

SEMI-CENTENNIAL JUBILEE.

In December, of 1874, the seminary completed fifty years of successful work, and its friends proposed to have, in the following July, in connection with the commencement exercises, a semi-centennial celebration. The following call, signed by more than 400 alumni, was issued: "The undersigned, former students, teachers and officers of Cazenovia Seminary, believing that the close of the fiftieth year of the noble work of this institution ought to be recognized in some way valuable to the cause of education, respectfully invite a reunion of all students, teachers and officers of the institution in Cazenovia, on the 7th and 8th of July, 1875. We ask the resident students, faculty and officers to make all necessary arrangements for the reunion."

When the time arrived thousands of old students and teachers, from all parts of the nation, and from Canada, thronged to the place. No grander gathering has been seen in Central New York than was that on the 7th and 8th of July, 1875, in the village of Cazenovia. The addresses, the poems, the music, the reminiscences, the renewing of associations that had slumbered ten, twenty, thirty, forty, and, in some cases, fifty years, conspired to make it an occasion most memorable.

ALUMNI RECORD.

In commemoration of that event, and of the half-century's work of the institution, a book, to be called the "First Fifty Years of Cazenovia Seminary," is to be published. The book will contain a history of the seminary, biographical sketches of the most eminent alumni and teachers, a chronological and alphabetical list of all the students who have attended here, together with such items of a personal nature as can be obtained, and a full account of the jubilee proceedings.

Thus, in a very brief and imperfect manner, we have given a sketch of the general history of the institution, but the major part will ever remain unwritten until the sealed book shall reveal all things. Its success has been what we might have anticipated, planted, as it was, by the prayers and sacrifices of a humble and God-fearing people. Within fifty years, the tiny shoot has become a great tree, whose branches extend to the remotest parts of the earth, pervading all departments of industry and art, and its influence shall cease only when time shall end.

SCHOHARIE ACADEMY.

The edifice of the Schoharie Academy was erected in the year 1835. A school was organized and conducted in such edifice by Horatio Waldo, Jr., as principal, from August, 1836, to August, 1837.

He received for his compensation the tuition fees and room rents, amounting for the year to \$708.17; from which sum he paid to the female assistant \$178.50, leaving a balance to him of \$529.67.

The Schoharie Academy was incorporated by an act of the Legislature of the State of New York, passed 28th April, 1837.

The first trustees were: Jacob Gebhard, Charles Goodyear, Benjamin Pond, William Dietz, William Mann, Peter Osterhout, Sr., Peter S. Swart, Jacob Vroman.

There were fifty-five original stockholders and a capital stock of \$3,450.

The following named persons have officiated as principal, viz.:

Horatio Waldo, Jr.	1836
Alfred Miller	1837
Levi Sternhugh	1839
George Kerr	1839
Henry Gallup	1840 to 1843
Avery Briggs	1843 to 1848
George W. Briggs	1848 to 1850 and 1867 to 1869
Lemuel H. Waters	1850 to 1851
John F. Severance	1851 to 1854
E. M. Guffin	April to September, 1854
Michael P. Cavert	1854 to 1855
A. J. Jutkins	1855 to 1857
John S. Parsons	1857 to 1860
William Sharts	1861 to 1862
Lorenzo S. B. Sawyer	1862 to 1864
George R. Adams	1864 to 1865
Edward A. Babcock	1865 to 1866
Charles L. Corbin	1866 to 1867
J. Wallace Ford	1869 to 1870
Oren C. Sikes	1870 to 1872

In 1873, a union free school was established in the school district in which the Schoharie Academy was located.

On the 9th July, 1873, the surviving trustees of Schoharie Academy (George Lasher and Peter Osterhout, Sr., having died since the last election) met at the office of Dr. P. S. Swart, in Schoharie, and passed and subscribed the following preamble and resolution:

Whereas, The board of education of "The Schoharie Academy and Union Free School of Schoharie" have been duly authorized by a vote of the legal voters of the district to adopt The Schoharie Academy, existing in said district, as the academical department of the district, it is, therefore,

Resolved, That the board of trustees of Schoharie Academy do hereby consent to such adoption; and they do hereby, jointly and severally, declare their offices vacant; and they do hereby attest this resolution by their several signatures and direct the same to be filed in the office of the clerk of Schoharie county, in pursuance of section 24, title 9, chapter 555 of the Laws of 1864.

PETER A. SWART,
President.

O. B. THROOP,
Treasurer.

R. BREWSTER,
Secretary.

GEO. B. BADGLEY.

J. W. TAYLOR.

JONAS KILMER.

Since becoming the academic department of the union school, the following have been the principals: N. L. Bachman, 1873, 1874; Solomon Sias, 1874 to the present time (1876).

OAKWOOD SEMINARY.

By President J. J. THOMAS.

This boarding institution, enlarged and improved from the school formerly known as Friends' Academy, at Union Springs, on Cayuga lake, having been noted for the successful co-education of the sexes, and for the high moral tone which has for many years pervaded it, it is believed that a brief account of its management may prove of use to other institutions.

It was established in 1858, under the auspices of the Society of Friends (orthodox) of the State of New York, from free subscriptions made for this purpose, and a large brick school building, then vacant, known as Oakwood Seminary, was purchased and occupied. It is not a sectarian institution, students of all denominations being received and allowed the free exercise of their denominational views. Since its origin, several additions have been made to the buildings by means of donations and its earnings, which have facilitated the system of co-education, the present dimensions of the buildings being more than triple their original size. The young ladies' department is at one end, the young men's at the other, with lecture-room, recitation-rooms, cabinet, laboratory and dining-room between. It is capable of receiving over 100 boarders. These buildings are of brick, three and four stories high, and extending 160 feet in length.

The institution is supported wholly by the current receipts from the students, and has usually paid its way, with an annual surplus expended in improvements.

The attendance of both sexes, under the careful supervision exercised, has had a two-fold influence of a favorable character. It has had a civilizing and polishing tendency, and it has proved a decided stimulus to study. Care having been taken at the outset, and continued without intermission, that none of the rules are deviated from, and that propriety of conduct is always observed, a general influence has become well understood and established in favor of maintaining this propriety on all occasions. Some of the officers have remarked that it is much easier to preserve good order under this system, with a reasonable amount of care, than in having the two sexes entirely separate. A description of the details of the arrangements may be acceptable.

As already mentioned, they occupy rooms remote from each other, being separated by the study and recitation and other offices. But as entire exclusion from each other is not desirable, and might lead to clandestine intercourse or correspondence on the part of the few who are not controlled by a high sense of honor, they meet three times a day at the dining-room, and take their meals together at opposite sides of the table, each table being presided over by an officer or teacher. They enter and retire from meals at opposite ends of the room. While pleasant conversation between them is encouraged, good order is insisted on. They also assemble together in the large study or lecture-room, on its opposite sides, preparatory to entering the recitation-rooms, and both are members of the same classes and recite together, as circumstances require. These are all the occasions when they daily meet. Once in from two to four weeks, however, they are invited to assemble in the parlors of the institution, as a social party, together with the officers, when the time is passed in pleasant conversation or approved amusements, and on which occasions they are expected to conduct themselves as when invited on a social visit at a gentleman's residence.

It may strike some that the regulations here mentioned are too rigid. It is true that the majority of the students who have attended could be fully trusted without any watching whatever, but there are always some of a different character, and the best are always willing to comply with regulations made for the general benefit. The trustworthy are not afraid to be watched, it is only the unreliable who object to it.

Another influence which has been studiously fostered, and which continues to prevail with much success, is the feeling of harmonious action between officers and students. They understand that all are working together for the same end — the improvement of the students — who look to the teachers as their friends, and they act in harmony (a few exceptions will, of course, occur). In order to reciprocate this trustworthy feeling in the students, they are permitted, as much as practicable, to feel that honor is reposed in them. To the general prevalence of this influence, and to the high character always shown by the great majority, the institution is largely indebted for its excellent order and good name.

As the most perfect of all systems of conduct, and the best of all influences that can be brought to bear, is the religion of the New Testament, a religious influence has always been labored for and encouraged, and the character of the school has been eminently indebted to the Christian feeling that has largely prevailed.

The triennial course of studies embraces an advanced academical series, including, besides a thorough system of English classics, the mathematical and natural sciences, chemistry, the classics, evidences of Christianity, and mental and moral philosophy. It has been a special

aim to reduce knowledge to practice. The students perform experiments and explain their application; they collect objects in natural history; and all are required to understand well and commit to memory a short and condensed treatise on accidents and emergencies, in order to fit them for action when disasters occur and to cultivate presence of mind.

The institution has never adopted the practice of offering prizes, as its tendency would be to lessen the kind feelings between students, which it is especially desirable to encourage. An "honorary certificate" is, however, awarded at the close of each term to all who have regularly attended all roll-calls and recitations, who have not failed in lessons, and whose conduct has been satisfactory; and the public reading of the results of a written examination proves a strong stimulus in advance to most of the students.

The fact that nearly all the students become strongly attached to the school indicates the pleasing character of its prevailing influences; and they regard it as a special privilege to attend.

PHELPS UNION AND CLASSICAL SCHOOL.

By Principal HYLAND C. KIRK.

To be entirely in keeping with this centennial period, we ought, doubtless, in presenting a history of the Phelps Union and Classical School, to go back at least a hundred years ago and chronicle the progress of educational matters to the present date. But aside from the very probable conjecture that the education of that day was limited to teaching "the young idea how to shoot" the arrow and to kindred employments, we can offer nothing concerning the school of 1776 in the town of Phelps. There is a rumor that a log school-house existed somewhere on the present site of the village of Phelps, prior to the year 1800. Of this we have been able to get no authentic account.

In the year 1805, there stood on the ground now occupied by the bank of T. O. Hotchkiss, a low, one-story frame building, nearly new, being about twenty by forty feet square. There were two apartments, of which one was occupied by Mr. Joseph Woodhull, son-in-law of the old hero and veteran John Decker Robison, the first white man who settled in the town of Phelps. The other apartment was occupied as a school room, and Aunt Chloe Warner, as she was familiarly called, was the teacher. How long she taught, or how successfully, we are not informed. At this time the old log school-house of the early pioneers, with its wide jambs, stick chimney, plastered over with mud, and its greased paper windows, together with the names and fame of its teachers, had passed away. Seventeen years had elapsed since Mr. Robison had landed from his boat on the farm now owned by Mr. Hugh Hammond, where the brook east of the village winds around from its northern to an eastern course, about eighty or a hundred rods north from Mr. Hiram Peck's residence.

Aunt Chloe was succeeded by Rowland Dewey, Ann Bigelow, Abigail Bigelow, sister of Ann, who had married Mr. Thomas Howe; then Betsey Newhall, who married David McNeil, then Caleb Bannister, afterward known and highly respected as Dr. Caleb Bannister, so long a resident physician of this town, and writer of an early history of this town; he taught about 1810 or 1811. Jared Wilson also taught soon after Dr. B. He afterward was one of the leading lawyers of the county. Dr. Harvey E. Phinney, then Miss Knapp succeeded him. Oliver Moore was teaching in 1816, Erastus Kellogg about 1818; John Chapman, dis-

tinguished as mathematician, taught about 1820; with him passed away the fashion of locking out the teacher on Christmas morning, so as not to have school that day. In order to have the work securely done, some of the older boys would stay in the school-house all night. It was not only expected by the scholars that there would be no school, but that the teacher would stand treat all around, which Mr. Chapman was but too willing to do.

About this time the district was divided, and two districts formed, the east and west, each of which built a new house. The east district built one of cut stone, which is the building next south of the Catholic church, and now occupied by Abram S. Smith as a dwelling. The second story was owned and occupied by the masons as a lodge room. The west district built of brick, and the building is now occupied as a dwelling, and is situated a few rods west of Mr. Cooper's blacksmith shop.

Among the teachers of the east district were Wm. King, Mr. Noble, Jacob Moore, 1821; Erastus Marvin taught 1822 to 1825, and was a very efficient and successful teacher; Ziba Crawford about 1827, Chas. E. Pinckney, Sybil Marvin, T. A. Pinckney, Horace Frazer, 1832, John S. Moore 1833, Cornelius Horton, Philander Dawby, J. C. Anderson, Fanny Henry, — Mr. Coun, 1845. About this time the two districts were reunited, and the present large and commodious building was erected and opened in 1846.

Among the teachers in the west district were Cornelius E. Crosby, father of Prof. Crosby, who was afterwards principal in the union school, Richard P. Marvin, afterward judge of eighth judicial district of the State of New York, F. Root, 1829 and '30, Ann S. Frazer, 1832.

The records of the eastern district still exist, and among the interesting resolutions passed at the school meetings and contained therein, are the following:

Resolved, That each scholar's parents shall furnish one-half cord good hard wood or pay the sum of fifty cents for each scholar. [1820.]

Voted, To dismiss the present teacher unless he shall consent to teach for twelve dollars per month.

The first teachers employed after the present building was erected were Prof. Lewis Peck, principal; Mr. J. H. French, assistant principal; Miss Gardner, preceptress; Miss Allen, primary department, and a Mr. Stone, teacher of penmanship. The first trustees were Anson P. Waterman, Wm. Hildreth and Moses B. Whitmore.

We take the following preface from the catalogue, etc.:

VIENNA UNION SCHOOL.

"This institution has just completed its first year. Previous to the establishment of this school, there was no permanent source of instruc-

tion in Vienna, except the two district schools now comprised in the union district. Although these schools occupied an enviable standing among the district schools generally, yet they did not afford a course of study sufficiently extensive and systematic; consequently, many pupils were sent abroad to avail themselves of those facilities not furnished at home. In view of these facts, the citizens of Vienna, with praiseworthy public spirit, resolved, by a union of the two districts, to form an institution which should obviate these difficulties, and merit the confidence and patronage of the entire community. For the accomplishment of this purpose, they purchased extensive and beautiful grounds, and erected a building which, in architectural beauty and convenience of arrangement, will not suffer in comparison with other edifices of a similar character. The building is of brick, forty by sixty feet on the ground, having a basement of eleven feet in height, one story of twelve, and one of fourteen and one-half feet. The school rooms are five in number, each measuring twenty-four by thirty-eight feet; besides a large library and lecture room; all of which are warmed by heated air from a furnace in the basement, and furnished with thermometers and ventilators. The whole expense thus incurred by the district amounts to about \$5,000."

LIBRARY AND APPARATUS.

"The school is furnished with a selected library of 500 volumes, together with extensive black-boards, maps, globes, astronomical charts, surveying instruments, etc., etc."

From this catalogue we take the following lists of officers and teachers:

Officers.—Trustees, Levi Briggs, Anson P. Waterman, Moses B. Whitmore. Collector, Chas. A. Coffin. Librarian, Wm. Henry.

Teachers.—Lewis Peck, A. B., principal; third grade, male department, Date Dutton; female department, Miss Octavia Gardner; second grade, Miss Julia A. Comstock; first grade, Miss Sarah Childs; teacher of penmanship, Jas. M. Stone.

The following is a copy of the programme of an exhibition of Vienna Union School, held Tuesday evening, March 23, 1847:

PRAYER.

Music.

1. Eulogy on Benjamin Franklin.....George King.
2. Instability of human governments.....Wm. W. Gates.
3. United we stand, divided we fall.....Alice M. Smith.
4. Music.....Mary E. Washburn.

Music.

5. Despotism.....Samuel Gorsline.
6. The general diffusion of useful knowledge.....A. D. McLoud.
7. Value of the Gospel to women.....Sarah Long.
8. An address to the moon.....Jane A. Lane.

Music.

9. Character of Andrew Jackson.....Wells Whitmore.
10. Literary resources of America.....C. Alonzo Deming.
11. Lights of the oriental world.....Harriet Gorsline.
12. Evils of romance.....Susannah E. P. Smith.

Music.

13. Our obligations to our ancestors.....James Stevenson.
14. The noblest work of God.....Clarissa Bannister.
15. Ambition.....Helen A. Dickey.

Music.

16. The Indian.....James Lane.
17. Mental culture.....Hannah Parsons.
18. The land of oppression.....E. Jones Peck.

Music.

BENEDICTION.

Prof. Lewis Peck, the first principal of the school, was born in the town of Phelps, and was a graduate of Hamilton College. He remained as principal of the school until October 15, 1853, at which time, on account of ill health, he sent in his resignation, having had charge of the school seven years. During his administration, several different ladies occupied the position of preceptress. After Miss Gardner, a Miss Newcomb taught for one or two years. Miss Beldney succeeded her, after whom the position was filled by Miss Caroline Adgate, and she in turn was succeeded by Miss Sarah Long, now Mrs. Lewis Peck.

After Mr. Peck's resignation, the trustees procured the services of Prof. Thomas Purinton, who, though very popular at first, according to report did not prove to be a successful principal. We learn that this gentleman was accidentally killed on the railroad some years since. He left the school in the spring of 1855. It was during his time that the bell now in the building was procured. Prof. Peck's health had so far recovered that he was again persuaded to take charge of the school, and he retained the position till 1857. Prof. W. M. Crosby, a graduate of Hobart College, was the next principal. He was a man of taste and culture, and did much toward improving and decorating the grounds and buildings.

Mr. Crosby, however, had his defects as well as good qualities, and it is intimated that on account of the latter he was finally induced to resign his position. Mr. Crosby instituted chapel exercises, and introduced music in the morning and Friday afternoon exercises. He left the school at the close of the spring term of 1856. Miss E. A. Clark was preceptress during nine months of the time Mr. Crosby was principal, and Miss Amelia Spooner occupied the position during the remainder of his term.

The next principal was Mr. Ziba H. Potter, now assistant professor of mathematics in Cornell University. He had charge of the school during 1860. We are informed by a lady who was a pupil in the school for a number of years, that she learned more under his instruction than under that of any other having charge of the school while she attended. And this she attributes to his superior qualities as a teacher. Miss Margaret Rees was preceptress during the year.

The next principal was Mr. Ezra J. Peck, A. M., who took charge of the school in 1861, with Miss O'Keefe as preceptress, and remained one year and then left the school to take a position in the army: His regiment was the Eighth New York cavalry. Rev. Ferris Scott succeeded Mr. Peck. Mr. Scott had previously been employed in the south as a teacher.

After this gentleman had been in the school some weeks, through a feeling which appears to have sprung up suddenly among the trustees, much to his surprise he was coolly informed, one Friday night, that his services as principal would be no longer required. The conditions under which he had engaged to teach were such that he could do no better than submit. He visited the school, however, on the following Monday. A Mr. Curtiss had been engaged to teach at a lower rate of wages. The pupils seemed to favor Mr. Scott; and either from the fact of his visit, the unprofessional way in which Mr. Curtiss conducted affairs, or other reasons, it is at least true that Mr. Curtiss was discharged, and Mr. Scott reinstated the week following. The name of this gentleman is, doubtless, familiar to most of the readers of the *Home Mail** from the interesting series of "Army Pictures" presented over his signature. As chaplain of the gallant One Hundred and Forty-eighth Regiment, he had good opportunities for observation. He is now, we understand, a teacher in Jersey City.

The trustees employed, as principal for the school year ending July 3, 1863, Mr. Lockwood Hoyt, A. M., a veteran teacher of some thirty years' experience. Miss Sarah M. Cloy was preceptress during the fall and winter terms of this year, and Miss E. D. Everett filled the position during the spring term. Both of these ladies were graduates of the Ontario Female Seminary. Of Prof. Hoyt it is said that he was an excellent instructor, but deficient in government. Mr. Milton Howe, A. B., was employed as assistant principal a part of the year. The same position was filled, the remainder of the year, by John W. Kennard.

For the school year ending July 15, 1864, John S. Coe, A. M., a graduate of Union College, was employed. Of the ability of this gentleman to control the school, the reader is requested to inquire of some of his old pupils, especially of those who came under his displeasure through disobedience. Miss Eliza D. Everett, A. A., who, it appears from the records, was a graduate of Ingham University as well as the Ontario Female Seminary, was preceptress this year. Prof. Lockwood Hoyt also appears to have been assistant principal during the winter term. The names of Mr. Coe, as a lawyer and pension-claim agent, and of Miss Everett, as a teacher in the Beirut mission school, Syria, are, of course, well known to readers of the *Home Mail*.*

* A local periodical in which this article was first printed.

It was during the administration of Prof. Lewis Peck that, on petition of the trustees, the law was enacted incorporating the school under its present title. (Code, page 619, Phelps, chapter 553, Laws of 1855, etc.)

During the year 1865, the powers and duties of the trustees were further defined. (Same page, chapter 54, Laws of 1865, etc.)

In the fall of 1866, Prof. E. J. Peck again took charge of the school. Miss Mary Butler, who was to have been preceptress, was taken ill at the beginning of the term and subsequently died, and the trustees secured the services of Miss Helen Wirts, who had recently graduated at Houghton Seminary, Clinton, to fill the position. Theron Van Auken was assistant during the winter term, and seven lady teachers were employed besides Miss Wirts during the year. Miss Ruth H. Nelson, who had taught very successfully in the primary department of the school for some ten years previously, closed her connection with the school this year.

Mr. Peck remained as principal of the school till the end of the fall term, 1869, when he was elected school commissioner for the first district, Ontario county. He was succeeded for the winter term by Mr. James S. Root, then a student at Hamilton College, subsequently a graduate and now pastor of the Presbyterian church, Camillus. Mr. Root was assisted, for a few weeks, by a Mr. Dodd, who was superseded, however, for the remainder of the term by Theron Van Auken.

In the spring of 1870, H. C. Kirk became principal of the school and remained such till the end of the fall term of 1872, when he vacated the position to take the office of school commissioner for the first district. During most of this period, Chas. D. Wader was assistant in the school and teacher of drawing, book-keeping and penmanship. He left in the fall of 1872, to take a position in the First National Bank, Geneva, which position he still retains.

George W. Rafter, a student in engineering at Cornell University, was principal for the ensuing winter term, with C. R. Dryer as assistant. Mr. Rafter also had charge of drawing. In the spring, Mr. Rafter left to pursue his profession, and Mr. Dryer took charge of the school. Mr. Rafter is now assistant city surveyor in Rochester.

During a portion of Mr. Dryer's term of service, Rev. J. A. Wader was assistant teacher of German, book-keeping, penmanship, etc. During the last portion of Mr. Dryer's term, however, this office was filled by Mrs. Frank Hammond. At the close of the school year 1875, Mr. Dryer closed his connection therewith to complete his studies and to engage permanently in the practice of medicine. He is now established, we understand, under very flattering auspices, in the village of Victor.

H. C. Kirk's term of office as school commissioner expiring at the

close of the year 1875, he took charge of the school for the fall term of that year, and still retains the position of principal. Miss Helen Wirts, the present preceptress, has held that position for the past ten years, a fact in itself proving the efficiency and success of her teaching. Mrs. Hosford, now in the senior intermediate department, has been connected with the school for quite as a long a period, and has had the largest experience as a teacher of any connected with the school. The remaining teachers are Misses Gervis, Wheeler, and Root, who have proved uniformly successful in their various departments, and Mrs. Hammond, who teaches writing, drawing and German. She is a graduate of the Packer Institute, Brooklyn, and a very capable teacher.

MUNRO COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE, ELBRIDGE, ONONDAGA COUNTY.

CHARTER.

The Regents of the University of the State of New York, to all to whom these presents may come, greeting :

Whereas, Nathan Munro of the town of Elbridge, in the county of Onondaga, by an instrument in writing under his hand, bearing date the 30th day of March, in the year 1839, after stating that he had contributed all the real and personal estate collected or appropriated for the use of the academy erected at the village of Elbridge, in the county of Onondaga, did make application to us, the said Regents, that the said academy might be incorporated and become subject to the visitation of us and our successors, and that John Munro, Medad Pomeroy, Jeremiah B. Evarts, Charles J. Merriman, Squire M. Brown, Charles Lombard, William Ranney, John Rice, Reuben Farnham, Nathan Munro, Abram Hall, Hiram F. Mather, Washington Thatcher, Wm. C. Van Vechten, Elijah D. Williams and James Munro might be trustees of the said academy by the name of The Munro Academy of Elbridge.

Know ye that we, the said Regents, having inquired into the said allegations contained in the instruments aforesaid and found the same to be true, and it having been made to appear to our satisfaction that the said academy is endowed with suitable academic buildings, library and philosophical apparatus, to the value at least of \$2,500, and conceiving the said academy calculated for the promotion of literature, do by these presents, pursuant to the statute in such cases made and provided, signify our approbation of the incorporation of the said John Munro [and others as above], by the name of the trustees of the Munro Academy of Elbridge, being the name mentioned in and by the request in writing on condition that the said endowments shall never be diminished in value below \$2,500, and that the same shall never be applied to purposes other than for public academic instruction. In testimony whereof we have caused our common seal to be herewith affixed the 23d day of April, in the year 1839.

JAMES KING,
Chairman.

GIDEON HAWLEY,
Secretary.

At a meeting of the trustees of Munro Academy on the call of the senior members of the board, being the first meeting under the charter which was recently granted by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, held at the academy buildings, in Elbridge, on Saturday the 6th day of July, A. D., 1839, present Medad Pomeroy, Jeremiah B. Evarts, Squire M. Brown, Wm. Ranney, John Rice, Reuben Farnham, Abram Hall, Hiram F. Mather, Washington Thatcher, Wm.

C. Van Vechten, Elijah D. Williams, whereupon Rev. Medad Pomeroy being the senior member of the board present at the meeting took the chair and Reuben Farnham, Esq., was appointed secretary *pro tem*.

It was then announced to the board of trustees by Hiram F. Mather, Esq., that on Friday the fifth instant at fifteen minutes before seven o'clock P. M., our esteemed fellow-citizen, Nathan Munro, Esq., a member of the board of trustees and sole founder of the academy, departed this mortal life in the full possession of his reason and power of speech.

It was also announced to the board that in addition to the original grant of the academic site and buildings, library and apparatus contained in the application to the Regents of the University on which the charter was granted, the deceased, founder of the academy, by his last will and testament made a further endowment to the same by enlarging the academical site and by a bequest of \$20,000 as a permanent fund for the support of the school, payable immediately after his decease. It was, therefore, unanimously

Resolved, That we highly appreciate the enlarged views of the subject of education entertained by the deceased, founder of this institute, evinced both by the original foundation and by the subsequent munificent endowment just made known to us and by which we cherish the confident hope that his name and memory may be embalmed in the recollection of future generations to the end of time.

Resolved, That the surviving members of this board feel deeply sensible of the great and unexpected responsibilities devolved upon them by an overruling providence, to meet which responsibilities they earnestly ask wisdom and grace from God.

Resolved, That the board adjourn to the thirteenth day of July, instant, to meet at the academic rooms.

July 13, 1839.

The board met pursuant to adjournment, John Munro, senior trustee, in the chair.

On motion of R. Farnham the board proceeded to elect a president.

John Munro receiving a majority of the votes was declared elected; James Munro was elected secretary and Hiram F. Mather treasurer.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

It may not be amiss to refer briefly to the Munros who have held responsible positions in connection with the academy from its earliest organization.

DEACON SQUIRE MUNRO.

Deacon Squire Munro, a native of Massachusetts, came with his family to the town of Camillus, now Elbridge, in 1799.

NATHAN MUNRO.

The Munro Academy was founded by his son, Nathan Munro, who was born at Cheshire, Mass., and died at Elbridge, July 5, 1839, aged forty-nine years. In 1835 he endowed the academy. It was incorporated in 1839. At his death he left the sum of \$20,000 as a perpetual fund that all within its reach might avail themselves of the advantages of a liberal education, surrounded by the wholesome restraints of home discipline. He was an enterprising citizen, and much respected for his zeal in educational interests and devotion to religious principles.

JOHN MUNRO.

John Munro, the brother of Nathan Munro, was appointed the first president of the board of trustees in 1839, and served acceptably until his death in 1860. He was a man universally esteemed for his benevolence and ready sympathy with the unfortunate. He was born in Cheshire, Mass., March 26, 1780, and died in Elbridge, N. Y., March 13, 1860.

JOHN RICE.

John Rice, Esq., the second president of the board of trustees, was duly elected October 6, 1860, to fill a vacancy caused by the death of Deacon John Munro. John Rice was born at Cheshire, Mass., January 8, 1799, and died at Elbridge, June 20, 1875. He came to Elbridge in 1820. By diligence and economy he gained a competence. By unswerving integrity and fixedness of purpose he maintained the respect and confidence of his fellow-men. He was untiring in his efforts to enlist the sympathies of all in behalf of the academy, being himself present at all the literary as well as business meetings. He attended the meeting of the Public Lyceum on Tuesday evening, on which evening he was stricken down by the malady that caused his death on the following Sabbath. He was one of the few trustees of our academies that subject themselves to the trouble and expense of attending the University Convocation held yearly at Albany.

THE MUNRO COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.

In 1854, the trustees erected the building known as "The Munro Academy." This academy stands in an open landscape, and is surrounded by trees, which, with the irregularity of the plan and outline of the structure itself, contribute to its picturesque effect. Its general form is an octagon, from which project four arms, forming a cross. One of the arms at the right is connected by a hall with a large oblong division, projecting at the front and rear. The material is brick with stone dressings.

From the elevations it will be noticed that the external walls are enriched with heavy base moldings, buttresses and turrets at the corners of all the parts — visible at the front and ends. The windows of the chapel extend across two stories, and have pointed caps, while the caps of all the others are square. The gables contain quatrifoil windows, and the walls are furnished with a molded cornice. The tower is chamfered in the third stage so as to be carried up in an octagonal form; it is pierced with lights on every side, and terminated with battlements. The main entrance is in the tower, which serves in the first story for a porch, and opens into the principal hall containing the stair-case. Doors at the right and left communicate with two spacious school rooms provided with desks. In the second story, the whole of the left portion of the structure is occupied by the chapel, which extends through the third story, and is a cross in plan. The front is occupied by the platforms and desks, and there are entrances on both sides. The windows of the front and rear are triplets, filled with small diamond lights, as are also the other windows. In the portion of this story at the right there are several apartments suitable for library, cabinet, philosophical apparatus and recitation rooms.

In 1859, the trustees further improved the academy by the elegant completion of the chapel, at an expense of about \$1,000, and placed at the east end a marble tablet bearing the following inscription:

To the memory of Nathan Munro, who was born at Cheshire, Mass., and died at Elbridge, New York, July 5th, 1839, in the 49th year of his age.

In 1835 he endowed the Academy which in April, 1839, was incorporated and called after his name; and at his death gave to it as a perpetual fund \$20,000. From the income of this fund and the sale of the old academy property, the Trustees in 1854 erected this edifice.

LIBRARY AND CABINET.

There is a library of nearly 1,000 volumes connected with the institution, to which the students may have access under the direction of the principal. The laboratory is supplied with some excellent apparatus. There is also a well selected and valuable cabinet of minerals.

THE COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

The course of instruction includes an English course embracing five years, or a classical course embracing three years.

The classical department, ancient and modern, is well sustained, embracing more than half of the whole number of pupils in attendance. The academy is regarded as in many respects one of the best fitting schools in the country.

The great number of graduates who have already attained eminence

in the pulpit, at the bar, and as educators, is a proof that the merits of the school have been well attested.

LITERARY SOCIETIES.

There have been for many years various literary societies connected with the academy, the exercises consisting of debates, essays and criticisms. The ladies' literary society was for many years an attractive feature of the academy.

The gentlemen's M. C. I. Club continued in successful operation until the spring of 1873, when the present lyceum was organized, admitting ladies and gentlemen on precisely the same footing. The exercises of each meeting consist of music, declamations, recitations, a lyceum paper and an extempore debate.

STATISTICS OF ATTENDANCE AND OF INCOME FROM TUITIONS AND THE LITERATURE FUND, AT MUNRO COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE, FOR THE LAST TWENTY YEARS.

YEAR.	Students.	Tuition money received.	Moneys received from Regents.	Teachers' class.
1857.....	184	\$549 39	\$191 00	\$180 00
1858.....	207	1,008 00	183 40	200 00
1859.....	211	1,326 00	289 70	200 00
1860.....	217	1,276 00	291 77
1861.....	215	1,322 00	312 10	200 00
1862.....	239	1,505 00	341 49	200 00
1863.....	233	1,384 00	339 86	200 00
1864.....	236	1,721 00	342 64	200 00
1865.....	262	1,955 00	324 80	200 00
1866.....	259	2,090 00	438 35	200 00
1867.....	218	1,755 00	466 74	200 00
1868.....	163	1,423 00	333 70	200 00
1869.....	156	1,285 00	253 39	200 00
1870.....	143	1,292 50	310 74	200 00
1871.....	141	1,291 50	322 76	200 00
1872.....	112	824 00	393 94	200 00
1873.....	115	649 00	1,168 11	340 39
1874.....	123	815 00	217 00	200 00
1875.....	143	1,100 00

SUCCESSION OF OFFICERS OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

Presidents.

Deacon John Munro was elected July 13, 1839.
 John Rice, Esq., was elected..... Oct. 6, 1860.
 Hon. Luke Ranney was elected Oct. 4, 1875.

Secretaries.

James Munro was elected July 13, 1839.
 Hon. Luke Ranney was elected Oct. 27, 1869.

Treasurers.

Hiram F. Mather was elected.....	July 13, 1839.
Squire M. Brown was elected.....	April 13, 1842.
W. C. Van Vechten was elected.....	June 27, 1849.
Elijah D. Williams was elected.....	Dec. 28, 1853.
L. B. Bennett was elected	Oct. 27, 1869.
John Munro was elected.....	Oct. 14, 1871.

SUCCESSION OF PRINCIPAL TEACHERS.

1839, Lemuel S. Pomeroy, A. M., principal; Julia A. Fitch, preceptress.

1840-1844, Stephen W. Clark, A. M., principal; Elvira P. Cadwell, preceptress.

1845, Stephen W. Clark, A. M., principal; Catherine A. Coleman, preceptress.

1846, Jeremiah W. Wolcott, A. M., principal; Mary A. Ellis, preceptress.

1847, Jeremiah W. Wolcott, A. M., principal; M. F. Loring, preceptress.

1848-9, John H. Wilson, A. M., principal; M. F. Loring, preceptress.

1850, John H. Wilson, A. M., principal; Mary A. Casey, preceptress.

1851, John H. Kellom, A. M., principal; Mary A. Goddard, preceptress.

1852, John H. Kellom, A. M., principal; Louisa Powers, preceptress.

1853-4, David Burbank, A. M., principal; Mary L. Powers, preceptress.

1855, David Burbank, A. M., principal; Eliza A. Boss, preceptress.

1856, David Burbank, A. M., principal; Charlotte A. Birdseye, preceptress.

1857, John H. Wilson, A. M., principal, one term; Herman Sanford, two terms; Charlotte A. Birdseye, preceptress.

1858, Truman K. Wright, A. M., principal; Amanda Bunnell, preceptress.

1859-72, Truman K. Wright, A. M., principal; Martha B. Wright, preceptress.

1873-76, Truman K. Wright, A. M., principal; Laura M. Carpenter, preceptress.

CANISTEO ACADEMY.

By Principal WELLINGTON LA MONTE, A. M.

The above institution was chartered by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, A. D., 1868, and has been in successful operation for the past four years. The structure is brick, three stories, beautiful in architecture, commodious, situated on a small eminence overlooking a beautiful town of 2,000 inhabitants, located in a lovely valley near the head-waters of the Allegany, and west branch of the Susquehanna.

The founders of the institution had long felt the necessity of it as furnishing a means of instruction for those designing to teach in the common schools, and those wishing to pursue a higher course of study preparatory to entering upon the learned professions, as well as those preparing for a collegiate or university course. Among the movers and active workers by whose efforts the edifice was brought to a completion, and furnished with a fine library and a valuable chemical, philosophical and astronomical apparatus, Rev. L. F. Laine, M. Allison, L. A. Waldo, the Riddells, Burrells, Taylors, Easons and Stevensens deserve especial mention.

WATKINS ACADEMY AND UNION SCHOOL.

Mrs. C. A. Freer, wife of Hon. Geo. G. Freer, being the widow and heir of Dr. Samuel Watkins, left by her will the undivided one-sixteenth of her real estate for the endowment of an academy to be established in Watkins, naming as trustees of this fund Geo. G. Freer, Orlando Hurd and M. M. Cass. By the provisions of the will these trustees were to act during their pleasure or lifetime, and each was empowered to name his own successor, any vacancy occurring by default of such appointment, to be filled by the judge of the Supreme Court of New York for the judicial district to which Watkins may belong. The real estate was sold and the proceeds converted into cash, excepting one square acre of land in the central part of the village, which the trustees reserved as a site for the academy buildings.

Early in the year 1860 the academy was organized under the authority of the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York, said board appointing as additional trustees Rev. F. S. Howe and Duncan S. Magee. The academy opened in April, 1860, with twelve pupils and the following faculty :

Rev. F. S. Howe, A. M., principal, but not teaching ; Prof. A. C. Huff, vice-principal, teacher of ancient languages and sciences ; Miss Mary Catlin, preceptress, teacher of modern languages and higher English ; Mr. Chas. T. Andrews, assistant teacher of English.

By an act of the Legislature, passed April 3, 1863, the present organization was effected, the district school and the academy being united in the Watkins Academy and Union School. The charter members, or trustees, were S. L. Rood, D. S. Magee, Daniel Howard, Rev. F. S. Howe, F. Davis, Jr., T. H. Abbey, Geo. G. Freer, Orlando Hurd and M. M. Cass, the three last named gentlemen being the permanent trustees of the endowment fund. The terms of office of the first three expired on the first Monday of January, 1865, of the second three on the first Monday of January, 1866. Vacancies are filled by election for three years at the annual school meeting on the first Monday of October preceding the vacancy.

The endowment fund has been all expended in fitting up buildings on the site above mentioned. The expenses of the school above the money received from the State, are borne by taxation. The tax has averaged \$5,000 annually.

The present board of trustees is as follows : L. M. Gano, president ; Orlando Hurd, treasurer ; Geo. G. Freer, M. M. Cass, M. D. Freer, F. Davis, Jr., B. W. Woodward, William Newman and Jno. M. Smelzer.

The faculty are S. S. Johnson, principal and secretary of board ; Fanny A. Munson, preceptress, modern languages ; Carrie S. Lewis, assistant teacher of common English ; Sarah M. Terrill, principal teacher in grammar school, fourth grade ; Nettie K. Remer, teacher in third grade ; Annie Smith, teacher in second grade ; Julia A. Mayer, teacher in first grade ; Ida Westerfield, teacher primary third grade ; Mary E. Duryea, teacher primary second grade ; Linda Drake, teacher primary first grade ; Julia A. Stanton, teacher north primary.

The whole number of pupils enrolled last year was 717. Average daily attendance 424. The whole number that have passed Regents' examination to date is eighty-seven.

Respectfully submitted.

L. M. GANO,

President of Board.

S. S. JOHNSON,

Secretary.

The following list of principals is copied from the first published report of the board of education:

A. C. Huff, from April, 1863, to March, 1867.

Jacob Berry, from March, 1867, to July, 1867.

J. Wadhams, from September, 1867, to July, 1868.

Edward Abbey, from September, 1868, to July, 1869.

J. L. Mack, from September, 1869, to February, 1874.

A. C. Pike, from February, 1874, to July, 1874.

S. S. Johnson, from September, 1874, to the present (1876).

DRYDEN UNION SCHOOL.

The records of the institution furnish the following notice :

To ERASTUS ROCKWELL, *Trustee of School District No. 8, Dryden :*

The undersigned inhabitants of school district No. 8, in the town of Dryden, entitled to vote at any meeting of the inhabitants of said district, hereby call for a meeting to be held for the purpose of determining, by a vote of said district, whether a union free school shall be established therein, in conformity to the provisions of chapter 555 of the Laws of 1864.*

(Signed) JOHN MILLER,
B. S. TANNER,
H. MARVIN and others.

In accordance with this request a meeting was called by the trustee, Erastus Rockwell, to be held on the ninth day of November following, at 6 P. M.

At this meeting the following resolution was adopted by the very strong vote of eighty-eight to twelve :

Resolved, That a union free school be established within the limits of school district No. 8, in the town of Dryden, pursuant to the provisions of chapter 555 of the Laws of 1834, and the amendments thereof.

This decided step was followed by another equally important, in the election of six trustees, Erastus Rockwell, William Fitch, Harrison Marvin, Geo. E. Goodrich, Merritt Baucus and Hiram W. Sears. Of this board, at the first meeting, William Fitch was elected president, which position he still retains, and Geo. E. Goodrich, secretary.

A special meeting was called immediately after the organization of the board of education, for the purpose of considering the proper measures toward securing accommodations for a graded school. A sharp contest was the result of the deliberations of this meeting. The issue which presented itself was whether to build a new edifice or to purchase the old academy property, which was then for sale. The new building alone was to cost from \$8,000 to \$10,000, whereas the academy premises could be purchased for one-half that sum. The latter was manifestly the more advantageous, and so a majority of the inhabitants decided.

The academy property, formerly owned by Jackson Graves,† was pur-

* The date of this notice is not given ; but it seems to have been in 1871. The Academic Department was received under the visitation of the Regents, Jan. 9, 1873.—[SEC'Y OF REGENTS.

† Not an incorporated Academy.—[SEC'Y OF REGENTS.

chased of him for the sum of \$4,149. This step, which was a disappointment to many, roused a spirit of opposition, which rendered the duties of the board very onerous. The building, which had been used for a boarding-school, was refitted throughout. New and modern seats were purchased, desks, black-boards and necessary apparatus generally, were supplied.

The district was exceedingly fortunate in the selection of a board in harmony with the progressive spirit of the age, and alive to the necessity of sparing no pains to make the school a success. Chas. A. Fowler, of Syracuse University, was the first principal elected. Although his way was hedged in by difficulties, yet, in conjunction with the board, he succeeded in bringing order somewhat out of chaos, during his stay of one year.

The purchase of organs for the use of the school, illustrates, perhaps, as well as any thing else, the bitter opposition which its friends had to meet. The principal asked permission to hire an organ for the use of his own room. This request was cheerfully granted, and the board immediately hired two other organs for each of the other departments on very favorable terms. The success of music as a method of discipline was so great that it was thought best to purchase the instruments for permanent use. As this was attended with considerable expense, some who would not understand the use of music in the school-room, nor listen to the logic of facts, bitterly opposed it. They even went so far as to write to the State department for instruction. The opposition was so earnest that the board decided not to raise the amount necessary for the purchase of the organs, by direct taxation, but rather by voluntary subscription, which was readily done.

This is but one instance of many that might be mentioned of the difficulties which the board was obliged to overcome in the earlier history of the school. But, nothing daunted, it kept steadily on in its purpose to make the school a success, and to force its merits upon the recognition of its patrons. This it has succeeded in doing. Opposition now to any of its measures is as rare as before it was frequent. The victory of the board in this respect has been complete. Its most bitter opponents at the beginning, are now its firmest friends. It has been a process of education on the part of some of its patrons that has not been altogether fruitless. For this result the district is under lasting obligations to the board of education.

Having filled the position with great acceptance for one year, Principal Fowler returned to the university to finish his course. In the spring term of 1873, F. J. Cheney was elected principal of the school. Soon after his election, at his suggestion, the board of education adopted two courses of study for the academic department, one a literary and

scientific, the other a college preparatory course. The opposition which has been met, and the expense of purchasing and repairing the school property, have prevented any very liberal provision for apparatus, which is necessary to obtain satisfactory results in teaching science. A laboratory well supplied seems to be the great desideratum of many of our higher schools.

A large proportion of our pupils are patronizing the classical course, thereby obtaining that mental discipline and that accurate knowledge of history which must always be wanting in a purely scientific course.

The marking system has been introduced with satisfactory results, it having been found to be an impetus to study, which the mere love of study does not give to pupils of the age usually attending our union school and academies.

All pupils are required to attend chapel exercises. The moral influence of these exercises upon the discipline of the school is incalculable.

A large proportion of the pupils taking higher studies, both in the classics and sciences, are females. The scholarship of these is fully up to that of the males, if not above. Although the age and number of such pupils over whom we have had jurisdiction may not justify us in reaching a final conclusion in this matter, yet our experience thus far leads us to affirm that woman, with equal advantages, is able to cope with man in hard mental labor. That system of education which debars her from the highest studies of the most extended course upon equal terms with man, must eventually yield to that higher and better sentiment of equality among all men, lying at the foundation of our institutions.

In the government of the school corporal punishment is not resorted to, except in extreme cases, and then usually among pupils in the lower departments. Suspension and expulsion have been found to be sufficient in most cases for the highest discipline. In the discipline of the school the pupil's sense of honor has been appealed to, rather than his sense of fear, and with marked success.

In the opinion of its friends, Dryden Union School is doing a work in this community which no other agency could accomplish, and they are fully determined that it shall not fail for want of support.

GRIFFITH INSTITUTE.

By Rev. JOHN A. WELLS, A. M.

This institution is situated in the village of Springville, in Erie county, N. Y., constituting, at present, the academic department of Springville Union School. It commenced its existence under the corporate name of Springville Academy, March 19, 1827. The original subscription for the building was commenced December 14, 1825, in fifteen dollar shares, to be binding when \$2,000 should be subscribed; one-third of each subscription to be paid in grain by the 1st of March, 1826, one-third in saleable young cattle by the first of September, and the other third in cash, one-half of which was to be paid by the 1st of June, 1826, and the other half by the 1st of January, 1827.

Payments came in slowly, so that it was not till the fall of 1830 that the building was completed for the opening of the school. The building was a substantial brick structure, which served its purpose well for nearly forty years. There were 152 shares taken, amounting to \$2,280, subscribed by eighty-seven persons, only four of whom are believed to be now living. Two of the original trustees yet linger among us.

An admirable code of by-laws was adopted for the regulation of the school, one that plainly shows the staunch Puritan sentiment which prompted the enterprise and administered discipline to the youth assembled in this school in its early days. One of the rules was: "In a reasonable time after the *horn blows* every student must be at the academy, and no ordinary excuse will be received for delinquency." The first principal was H. H. Barney. He was a good teacher and rigid disciplinarian. The academy was made subject to the visitation of the Regents of the University of the State of New York in 1830.

The value of the property of the academy, as reported to the Regents of the University in December, 1832, was \$3,436. The amount received from the State that year was \$222.22. In the earlier years of its existence the academy was severely embarrassed in its finances.

The gentlemen who have served the institution as principals, succeeded each other in following order: H. H. Barney, 1830 to 1833; Lorenzo Parsons, 1833 to 1838; Edwin E. Williams, 1839 to 1841; A. C. Huestis, 1841 to 1844; E. C. Hall, one year; Wm. C. Mosier, one year; J. W. Earle, three years. Moses Lane commenced his labors as principal the

first of January, 1850, and continued three years. Ezekiel Cutler and Eden Sprout held the office of principal each one year from 1854; Wm. S. Aumock was principal from 1855 to 1858. In 1857, in compliance with a general public sentiment that it would be for the good of the academy to have it under the care and patronage of some religious denomination, a vote was passed to confer with the authorities of both the Presbyterian and Methodist churches. The result was an agreement by which the control of the academy in the nomination of its teachers was given to the Genesee conference of the Methodist church. The trustees agreed to keep the building and appurtenances in good repair, and the conference on their part to give the academy the support and patronage of the Methodist church. The conference, by a commission chosen for that purpose, had the right of nominating the teachers, subject to approval of the board of trustees. The plan was subject to the approval of the Regents of the University. The stockholders were to have the same rights of property in the academy after the transfer as before. The Regents approved the arrangement. It went into effect in the fall of 1858, and Rev. David Copeland was appointed principal. Under his administration the institution seemed prosperous.

A subscription was commenced in the spring of 1865, in accordance with a vote of the trustees, March second, to rebuild the academy. The sum named as necessary to complete the work was \$5,000. During the following year the academy building was enlarged by the addition of a front twelve feet deep and thirty wide, supporting an elegant steeple, and by carrying up the walls to form a third story, which was finished as a chapel.

In consideration of the gift of \$5,000 by Archibald Griffith, Esq., the corporate name was changed in 1866 to "Griffith Academy," and afterwards to "Griffith Institute."

Mr. Griffith afterwards bequeathed his entire property, after providing for his heirs, amounting to nearly \$11,000, as a permanent fund to Griffith Institute, to be used mainly for the free education of orphan and indigent children of the town of Concord, in which the village of Springville is situated.

Rev. A. McIntyre and Rev. C. R. Pomeroy were principals for short periods from 1866 to 1868, when Rev. Wm. H. Rogers was appointed to the charge of the institute. In 1870, Rev. A. R. Wightman was appointed principal.

At a meeting of the board of trustees, held July 5, 1873, the following preambles and resolution were unanimously adopted :

"Whereas, At a meeting of the board, held on the 22d of March, 1873, it was resolved that the agreement heretofore made between the board of trustees of the Springville Academy and the Genesee confer-

ence of the Methodist Episcopal church, terminate at the close of the present academic year, ending July 31, 1873; and

Whereas, Efforts have been made to circulate and enforce the belief that the said resolution was adopted in the interest and through the influence of the special friends of another religious denomination; therefore,

Resolved, That it is equally due to this board and to the said conference, that it be made known to the public that the said resolution was adopted after a full, frank and friendly consideration of the same, by a decided majority of the board, and without any opposition; that there was no thought or intention on the part of any member sustaining the resolution to further or favor the interests of any other religious denomination, that it was adopted with the most friendly feeling toward the conference and the denomination which it represents, and from a full conviction that its adoption was called for by a decided majority of the friends of the institution.

The trustees proceeded to take the entire charge of the institute. John W. O'Brien, a graduate of Hamilton College, was chosen principal, and held the office two years. He was succeeded by S. W. Eddy, also a graduate of Hamilton College.

In 1876, Griffith Institute was, by special act of the Legislature, united with Springville Union School, as the academic department of the same.

Of the men who have served the institution as trustees with great usefulness and honor to themselves, most of whom are now dead, an honorable mention should be made of Samuel Lake, R. C. Eaton, Carlos Emmons, Pliny Smith, C. C. Severance and Samuel Cochran. Among the lady teachers, Harriet N. Murray, Ann L. North, Salina Johnson, Phebe Starkweather, Jennie M. Brownell, Mary M. Campbell, Sarah O'Brien, Libbie Mayo and Fanny Sherman deserve special and honorable mention on account of the length of time they have served, and their efficiency as teachers.

Many students of this institution have achieved an honorable position in society, among whom are Hon. Wells Brooks, now deceased, President D. H. Cochran, L.L. D., of Brooklyn; Ex-Governor Gibbs, of Oregon; John H. Bensley, president board of trade, Chicago; Hon. A. G. Rice, of Buffalo; Judge Albert Haight, of the Supreme Court and Judge A. D. Scott and Senator C. P. Vedder, of Cattaraugus county.

JAMESTOWN UNION SCHOOL AND COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.

LOCATION AND SETTLEMENT OF THE TOWN.

Jamestown, the seat of this institution, is located in Chautauqua county, near the foot of Chautauqua lake. It is delightfully situated on both sides of the outlet to the lake, and is about 1,300 feet above the level of the sea. The outlet is navigable for all steamers running on the lake, to the limits of the village. It is on the line of the Atlantic and Great Western railroad, about thirty miles from its junction with the Erie railway at Salamanca, and it is also the present terminus of the Buffalo and Jamestown railroad.

The village has a population of about 8,000, having nearly doubled the number of its inhabitants during the last ten years. Its rapid growth is due in part to the system and management of its schools, and the large and varied manufacturing interests, as well as to the general thrift and enterprise of its citizens. Among the leading enterprises of the place, are two large wood seat and one cane seat chair manufactories, two iron foundries and machine shops, two sash, door and blind factories, two piano factories, one ax and edge tool factory, three wholesale furniture manufactories, one woolen mill and one of the very few alpaca mills in the country.

The first settlement was begun, and the first house built, in 1810, by Mr. (afterwards Judge) James Prendergast, for whom the town was named. In 1805, he came with his family from the eastern part of the State, traveling over parts of Kentucky and Tennessee, but finally returned to make this his permanent home. In 1815 a survey was made, and the land laid out in village lots for the accommodation of the many settlers arriving from the east. It was at this time that the name "Jamestown" was given in honor of the first settler. It was incorporated by act of the Legislature in 1827, and was the first village in the county on which corporate powers were conferred. Although distant from larger towns, and central routes of travel, it grew and prospered largely by means of its lumber trade. The magnificent forests of pine, covering the hills and valleys, were leveled to the ground, manufactured into lumber and shingles in the water-mills of the outlet, and then sent on its rushing waters to the Connewango, through the Allegany river, and on to the promising markets along the banks of the Ohio.

The early settlers were of the better class from the eastern part of this State, Vermont, Massachusetts and Connecticut. It was hence

quite natural that they should take a deep and abiding interest in the education of their children and youth.

CHARTER OF JAMESTOWN ACADEMY.

For the purpose of carrying forward the project of improving the facilities for educating the youth of the village and vicinity, a stock company was formed in the winter of 1835-6, and application made to the Legislature for a charter, which was granted April 16, 1836.

During the next session of the Legislature, in 1837, the trustees of the Jamestown Academy were authorized, in their discretion, from time to time, to increase the capital stock of said academy from \$3,000 to a sum not exceeding \$10,000.

ORGANIZATION OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

The first meeting of the board of trustees of the Jamestown Academy, after the act of incorporation was passed, was held at the office of Samuel A. Brown, Esq., on Tuesday, the 5th day of May, 1836; at which meeting Elial T. Foote was chosen president of the board; Abner Lewis, secretary; and Samuel A. Brown, treasurer. At a subsequent meeting of the board, held on the 26th day of July, 1836, the following resolutions were adopted, viz.:

Resolved, That the site of the academy be located on lots Nos. 12, 13 and 14, on the east side of Spring street, and on the south side of Fourth street.

Resolved, That a building committee consist of three, and that Woodley W. Chandler, Samuel Barrett and Elial T. Foote be said committee.

Measures were immediately taken for the erection of a suitable building, and in about one year from the time the work was commenced, it was so far completed that Mr. Lysander Farrar (since of Rochester), who had been appointed principal, removed his school into it. Previous to the organization of the academy, a classical school, in which the languages, mathematics and the higher branches of an English education were taught, had been maintained, with some interruption, for several years in the village of Jamestown. This school, at the time the act of incorporation was passed, was under the charge of Mr. Farrar, who had entered heartily into the project of a regularly organized institution, and had rendered efficient aid in its accomplishment.

CARE OF THE REGENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY.

At a regular meeting of the board of trustees, held on the 18th day of January, 1839, resolutions were adopted placing the academy under the care of the Regents of the University; and at the same meeting an application and report to the Regents, which had been prepared by President Foote, was also adopted. The application having been favorably received, the academy, from that time to its incorporation with the

academic department of the Union School and Collegiate Institute, received its share of the literature fund.

COURSE OF STUDY AND MODE OF INSTRUCTION.

Although the courses of study were not laid down in terms and years, the studies were so arranged that persons who desired could pursue a regular course in any of the departments. The course of study in the Latin and Greek languages included all that was required for admission into any college in the United States. The department of natural science was for several years under the charge of G. W. Hazeltine, M. D., who possessed a high reputation as a teacher and lecturer.

From the time of the first opening of the institution to its incorporation with the union school in 1866, the Jamestown Academy prospered beyond the anticipations of its most sanguine supporters. Its success was largely due to the untiring efforts of Prof. Edward A. Dickinson, who was for many years its honored principal.

ORIGIN OF THE JAMESTOWN UNION SCHOOL AND COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.

The first meeting in relation to the union school was called in response to a petition of the inhabitants of districts Nos. 1, 2, 3, 6, 10 and 16, of the town of Ellicott, and held at Jones' Hall, on Monday the 13th day of July, 1863. The purpose of the meeting was to determine by a vote of these districts whether a union school should be established therein, in conformity to the provisions of chapter 433, of the Laws of 1853. A resolution to establish such a school was adopted by a vote of more than two-thirds of those present, entitled to vote. At a subsequent meeting, held at the same place July 24, 1863, the following named gentlemen were duly elected to serve as a board of education, viz.: Wm. H. Tew, S. W. Parks, A. R. Catlin, Alexander Sheldon, Wm. Wilson, DeForest Weld and Rev. S. W. Roe.

At a meeting held on the first day of August, 1863, at the office of W. H. Tew, the board of education organized by electing W. H. Tew president, and S. W. Roe clerk. Mr. Robert Newland, of the Chautauqua county bank was unanimously elected treasurer for the board. At this meeting measures were taken for the purchase of a lot on which to erect buildings suitable for the proper conducting of the school, and at a subsequent meeting of the inhabitants of the district, held at the usual place, August 24, 1863, the resolution to purchase the Pier property, between Second street and the outlet, including ten acres, more or less, was adopted, and at an adjourned meeting held August twenty-eighth, the board of education were instructed to complete the purchase of the Pier property. They were also authorized to raise by tax in installments such a sum as was deemed necessary for the erection of union school buildings, the whole amount not to exceed \$10,000. From

time to time, however, different sums were added to this, until the structure was finally completed at a cost of about \$70,000, well and judiciously expended.

For the two years succeeding the organization of the board of education, the schools were maintained and conducted by competent instructors, in the buildings formerly occupied by the districts before their consolidation. The academy being yet in the care of its board of trustees, there were no buildings or rooms at the command of the board of education suitable for bringing the schools together and grading them. In the meantime, the new building was progressing under the personal supervision of Aaron Hall, Esq., a most thorough, experienced and competent architect and builder.

OPENING OF THE UNION SCHOOL.

In the summer of 1865, the demand for a more perfect organization of the school became imperative. Some steps had been taken toward securing the academy by uniting it with the union school, but up to this time without success. It was therefore determined by the board of education to open the grammar and high school departments in rented rooms, early in September. With this end in view, at a meeting of the board held July ninth, it was resolved to tender the situation of principal to Prof. Samuel G. Love (formerly of the Buffalo public schools, and later principal of Randolph Academy), which he shortly afterwards accepted, and prepared to enter upon his duties.

It is but just to say here, that Mr. Love had often been in consultation with the board of education during the last two years, giving freely and fully his views in regard to the construction of buildings, and the organization and conducting of the schools. He had early said to a prominent member of the board that he had an ideal of a school for the people, which from necessity he had failed to realize both in Buffalo and Randolph, and that if he should ever take charge of the schools of Jamestown, it would be with the purpose of developing as fully as possible that ideal. The firm and unwavering support of the board of education, always fully and generously accorded him, together with the competent instructors associated with him, furnishes the key to the past success of the schools, their present prosperous condition, and the bright hopes looking towards their future achievements.

On the twelfth day of September the schools were opened; the primary and second departments, or the six lowest grades, retaining the district school houses as formerly; and the grammar and high school assembling in Jones' Hall. In all they numbered about 250, which was considered a large attendance. The pupils in the hall were examined, classified, and sent to their respective rooms. The junior grammar class numbered about thirty-five, the middle about forty, and the senior about

thirty; a very few of the last class taking the higher branches. But the school grew in numbers from day to day, and before the close of the first term it was necessary to engage additional rooms; and at the opening of the winter term it became evident to the board that rented rooms would not suffice for the growing interests of the school.

INCORPORATION OF THE ACADEMY WITH THE UNION SCHOOL.

The trustees of the academy had steadily refused to surrender the control of the institution under their care. It was endeared to them by a long, watchful and somewhat expensive oversight. It had done much for their sons and daughters, and could do as much for others. Not being in full sympathy with the progressive views of education now growing rapidly in public favor, they could not sanction any steps towards a union with them. They did, however, at a meeting held August 15th, 1865, adopt the following resolution, viz:

Resolved, That a proposition be made to the board of education of the Union School of Ellicott, to unite in procuring an act, by which the academic scholars in that school may be instructed in the academy on such terms as may be mutually agreed upon, and that the president, secretary and Mr. Barrett be a committee to present the proposition to the board of education, and to take such steps as may be necessary to carry it into effect.

The proposition was a fair one, and, while no reasonable person could reproach the board of trustees for refusing to surrender their control of the institution, on the other hand the board of education, believing that a majority of the stock in the academy duly represented would favor the proposition for a union, determined to accept no terms short of that object. Accordingly, at the annual meeting for the election of a new board of trustees, held January 9th, 1866, those stockholders who were friendly to the Union School rallied and elected a board as follows, viz: Wm. H. Tew, Ellick Jones, Wm. Broadhead, S. B. Winsor, A. A. Price, A. H. Loucks, Lewis Hall, R. W. Arnold, Silas Shearman, Nathan Brown and D. H. Grandin. On the thirteenth of January these gentlemen met at the office of Wm. H. Tew and elected their officers as follows, viz: Silas Shearman, president; Lewis Hall, secretary. Again, on the twenty-seventh of the same month, they met at the same place and adopted the following resolution, viz:

Resolved, That this board of trustees pass over, or transfer the James-town Academy property to the board of education of the Union Free School No. 1, of the town of Ellicott, whenever this proposition shall be accepted by a vote of said district.

Finally, at a special meeting of the union school district on the twenty-third of March following, called pursuant to notice duly given, it was resolved to accept the proposition of the board of trustees, and "that

the said academy be hereafter known as the Academic Department of the said Jamestown Union School and Collegiate Institute." The board very soon took possession, and the third term of the academic department was completed in the academy building. It continued its sessions therein until August, 1867, when the new building was finished and ready for occupation.

DEDICATION OF INSTITUTE HALL AND THE NEW BUILDING.

It was deemed advisable by the board of education and other citizens that the new building should be dedicated with appropriate ceremonies, to the purposes for which it had been constructed with so much care and expense. Accordingly, on the 29th of June, 1867, at 2 o'clock, P. M., a large audience of citizens and strangers assembled in the hall of the building to listen to the following order of exercises, viz:

1. Organization by S. S. Cady, president board of education.
2. Music.
3. Reading of Scripture.
4. Prayer.
5. Music.
6. Remarks by Governor Fenton and others.
7. Song and chorus, "The Empire Schools are Free."
8. Dedicatory address by Hon. F. W. Palmer, of Des Moines, Iowa.
9. Benediction.

In the course of his remarks, Principal Love, by direction of the board of education, named the structure "The Institute Building," and the hall "Institute Hall." C. E. Bishop, Esq., editor of the Jamestown Journal, was called for, and on behalf of the Jamestown Lecture Association, presented to the library of the J. U. S. & C. I., a complete set of Appleton's New American Cyclopeda, together with other valuable books. The remarks of Gov. Fenton were timely, appropriate and impressive throughout. The excellent address of Hon. Frank Palmer was listened to with intense interest by the large audience of men and women, who had known him as boy, youth and man, and with generous pride had seen him achieve honorable distinction in the world.

The day will long be remembered by the friends of education in Jamestown and vicinity. A full account of the proceedings were published in the *Journal* and *Democrat* the following week.

THE BUILDINGS.

It was the purpose of the board originally to build large enough to accommodate the pupils of the entire district in the one building, and hence they were directed at one of the school meetings to sell the property that belonged to the respective districts. Before the new building

was completed, however, it became apparent to all that it must be devoted entirely to the use of the grammar and high schools. But some of the district school sites having by this time been sold, it was determined to divide the union school district into sub-districts, having regard to location and amount of school population. The original number into which it was thus divided was five; at present there are seven. Each of these sub-districts is (or is to be) supplied with buildings having seating room for 200 to 400 pupils.

The institute building is of brick, and stands on the ground about sixty-two by 100 feet. It is four stories high, above the basement, the fourth being under the Mansard roof. The front part of the basement floor contains the heating room, the water tank and the working room for the janitor. The rear half is divided into two school rooms, with corridors on two sides. The first floor has four schools, separated by cross corridors; and the second floor the same, making ten school rooms in all, with a seating capacity of about 550. In addition to the four school rooms on the first floor, there is one recitation room, and on the second floor, two and an office for the superintendent and board of education, in which the circulating and reference libraries are kept. The third floor is occupied entirely by the hall and passageways, the seating capacity of which, including the galleries, is about 1,300. The fourth floor contains the commercial school room and banking office attached, a laboratory, with furnace, water and sand baths, with lumber room attached, a cabinet of natural history, a drawing room, two music rooms, in one of which the documentary library is kept, and a printing office, with two presses and several fonts of type and material. These rooms are all in daily use by teachers and scholars pursuing the regular duties of the school.

THE SCHOOL.

It is claimed that the institution is *sui generis* both in its organization and methods of work, and also in the extent and variety of culture offered to its members. No effort, pains or expense has been spared by the board of education or principal, to adapt the organization to the best modern systems and to supply the school with every needed appliance for general and special work.

The libraries together contain more than 1,500 volumes in constant use more or less by teachers, scholars and citizens. The apparatus is large and varied, and is extensively used in teaching the experimental sciences. The cabinet contains a large number of geological and mineralogical specimens, classified and arranged for the purpose of instruction, and a well assorted selection of birds and animals put up by experienced taxidermists for the same purpose. There are five pianos belonging to the institution, including one first-class Steinway grand. The apparatus

in the department of physical culture consists of most of the implements in general use in teaching light musical and heavy gymnastics. In the printing room, all the printing is done for the school and the board of education by pupils taught to set type therein.

There are three literary courses of instruction, viz.: An English academic course of three years, a classical academic course of four years, and a college preparatory course of three or four years. The following special course of instruction should also be mentioned, viz.: The commercial, which includes an actual business course, conducted on a money basis, the student buying and selling merchandise at the real market value, for cash, note, draft, on account, etc. He also acts as commission merchant, receiving and shipping goods to be sold on commission. The normal department, conducted with special reference to the wants of those persons who propose to engage in teaching. The student in this course must hold an academic certificate and be a working member of the department one year. The department of instrumental music, requiring instruction and practice four or more years, depending upon the proficiency of the pupil. The department of drawing and painting, giving a complete systematic course of lessons (object and copying), in pencil, crayon, perspective, water colors and oil painting, the time occupied depending upon the proficiency of the student; and the department of physical culture, requiring daily exercise in all the movements, evolutions and attitudes, until a sufficient degree of perfection is attained to enable the pupil to teach the subject himself. Each of these departments is supplied with one or more competent instructors, and all the apparatus required.

At the conclusion of any of the above named courses of instruction, the student, on passing the required examination, receives an appropriate diploma from the board of education.

OPPOSITION TO THE UNION SCHOOL.

Lest it should be inferred from the foregoing brief history of the origin and progress of the J. U. S. & C. I., that there were no opposing elements in the field, it is due to all interested that the following should be stated :

The opposition from the first was earnest, determined and well organized. The efforts made to prevent its establishment were neither weak nor foolish. They had their foundation in the experiences of the past, and fears for the future welfare of the village, if so radical a change should be effected. A portion of those opposed to the movement were afraid of the expense. The country was in the midst of a terrible civil war. Men and money were constantly demanded by those in authority to save the life of the nation. Every dollar must be treasured and held

in readiness for this all-important purpose. Another class were entirely satisfied with the present condition of things. The schools were acceptable to them, the instructors capable and faithful. If the youth of the districts and vicinity desired better advantages than these schools offered, there was an academy in their midst, with open doors ready to receive them. Still another class of the people feared that any change would be for the worse. It would be folly to give up good schools for those untried, and unlikely to meet with success. And yet another class were opposed to the free school system as unjust and oppressive. They had educated themselves in their youth, had also paid for the education of their children, who were just stepping out from the paternal home, and now to be called upon to pay an annual tax for the education of all the children and youth in the village, was nothing more nor less than rank injustice.

All their arguments, however, though seconded by well-directed efforts, were of little avail. The friends of the movement answered them as best they could, relying mainly on faithful co-operation to accomplish the object in view. As the work progressed, opposition gradually diminished. The taxes were somewhat burdensome, but the increased value of property, the rapid growth of the town, and the greatly improved advantages for education and culture to the children and youth, more than compensated for all the expense, and satisfied many of the most determined opponents that the project was conceived at least in wisdom, and after the school was fully organized, and all the departments were at their legitimate work, most of the opposition disappeared. Now but few, if any, individuals can be found who are not ready and willing to grant a liberal supply for all its wants.

THE ALUMNI ASSOCIATION.

Early in the history of the institution it was deemed advisable that something should be done to secure a living, active interest in the welfare of the school, and, if possible, to strengthen their attachments to the Alma Mater of those who should complete a course of instruction therein. They would go out from it to enter upon business and professional careers. Many would remain within the sphere of its influence, and would soon be called upon to assist in its management and control. To aid in accomplishing this object a society was formed, consisting of the graduates of the school, the teachers and the members of the board of education. The first steps towards its organization were taken at the close of the commencement exercises in 1869. During the following year the organization was perfected, and it was named the Alumni Association of the J. U. S. & C. I. By the terms of the constitution, the annual election of officers takes place on the second Tuesday in

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April. The exercises are an anniversary address at Institute Hall on the evening previous to commencement day. On the afternoon of that day the association repair, by steamer, to some one of the hotels on the lake, where the exercises are continued by a report of the necrologist, a poem, by the poet of the year, and a chapter of the history, by the historian, each having been duly appointed for the duty named. Dinner is announced at 4.30 P. M., concluding with toasts and a general social re-union.

The officers for the centennial year are C. B. Winsor, class of '68, president; F. B. Farnham, class of '68, Flora M. Shearman, class of '69, Louis K. Jones, class of '68, vice-presidents; Ida M. Farlee, class of '72, recording secretary; C. F. Vanderburg, class of '69, corresponding secretary; Marion P. Hatch, class of '69, treasurer.

Table showing the Attendance, Income from Tuition and the Literature Fund; also, the Number of Graduates at the Academic Department of the Jamestown Union School and Collegiate Institute.

YEAR OF REPORT.	Attendance.	Number who received Regents' certificates during the year.	Tuition received of non-residents.	Literature Fund.	LIST OF GRADUATES.						
					Classical academic course.	English academic course.	College preparatory course.	Commercial course.	Normal course.	Instrumental music course.	Physical culture course.
1866.....	51	84	\$140
1867.....	75	80	1,100	\$103 50
1868.....	124	116	2,150	222 43	3	6	14
1869.....	199	104	2,900	485 88	1	3	2	19	13
1870.....	309	69	3,050	401 59	..	5	1	18	12
1871.....	310	90	2,800	701 83	..	13	1	16	15
1872.....	255	39	2,850	918 42	..	10	..	9	10
1873.....	268	80	2,750	711 84	..	12	..	6	11
1874.....	306	58	2,715	2,086 70	1	3	..	7	4	4	5
1875.....	289	64	2,650	1,415 38	3	8	3	11	5	1	16

OFFICERS OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

Presidents.

Elial T. Foote.....	May 5, 1836.
Samuel A. Brown	Sept. 15, 1845.
Elijah Bishop	Jan. 12, 1864.
Silas Shearman	Jan. 9, 1866.

Secretaries.

Abner Lewis.....	May 5, 1836.
Abner Hazeltine	April 12, 1837.
Lewis Hall.....	Jan. 13, 1866.

Treasurers.

Samuel A. Brown	May 5, 1836.
Adolphus Fletcher	Jan. 19, 1846.
Zalmon G. Keeler	Jan. 9, 1849.
Robert V. Cunningham	Jan. 12, 1864.

Principals.

Lysander Farrar	———— 1836.
George W. Parker	———— 1837.
Edward A. Dickinson	Sept. 10, 1839.
Charles Jemison	July 7, 1855.
Edward A. Dickinson, re-appointed	Aug. —, 1856.
Rev. Rufus King	July 6, 1863.

OFFICERS OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

Presidents.

Wm. H. Tew	July 24, 1863.
S. S. Cady	Oct. 9, 1866.
S. W. Parks	Oct. 13, 1868.
John M. Farnham	Oct. 11, 1870.
S. W. Parks	Oct. 8, 1872.

Clerks.

S. W. Roe	July 24, 1863.
C. R. Lockwood	Nov. 15, 1864.
A. R. Catlin	Oct. 10, 1865.
M. Bailey	Oct. 9, 1866.
B. A. Barlow	Oct. 13, 1874.
Levant L. Mason	Oct. 12, 1875.

Treasurers.

Robert Newland	Aug. 1, 1863.
Alonzo Kent	Oct. 10, 1866.

Principal.

Samuel G. Love	July 9, 1865.
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DUNKIRK UNION SCHOOL.

The village of Dunkirk is situated on Lake Erie, in the county of Chautauqua, the most western county of the State of New York. It has a population at present of between 7,000 and 8,000. Its schools are the just pride of its inhabitants, and are second to none in the State for efficiency. There are in all ten school buildings. The teachers number thirty-three, having daily charge of upwards of 1,100 pupils.

The completion of the Erie railroad and location of its terminus at Dunkirk in the spring of 1851, may be taken as the starting point both of the prosperity of the village and the consequent educational growth. Previous to that event the population was about 500, but in two years it had increased to 6,000. Thus far the school was kept in one building, with about 100 pupils. In 1854, the first step in improvement was made by the district voting the sum of \$6,000 to build a new school house. But under the old law the trustees were personally responsible for its expenditure, and they refused to act in the matter.

The next year the trustees were Dr. H. R. Rogers, Charles Sherman and James Brownell. The same sum was re-voted, and with great public spirit they set about the erection of a commodious building. Meanwhile, the building on Third street, now known as the lock-up, was used for the lower grades, and Concert hall, which stood on Center street, between Second and Third, for the higher grades. Heretofore, only two teachers had been employed, and only the public money had been expended. Through the active exertions of Dr. Rogers, the teachers were soon increased to nine, and higher studies were introduced. Of teachers then engaged, Miss Emma Post still remains, having advanced from the primary to the grammar grade. This was the awakening of increased interest in the school among all classes. The expenditures, however, advanced from \$400 to \$2,800. This was then collected, after deducting the public money, by a rate bill. The salary of the head teacher and his wife was \$500, others from three to four dollars per week. In 1857, No. 1, a two-story brick building, was completed and furnished at a cost of \$9,000. The first principal was Prof. Charles Case.

Through the agency of Dr. J. T. Williams, a special act of the Legislature was passed February 27, 1858, changing the school into a union free school.

This at once placed the school on a firm foundation, and guaranteed

its prosperity. The first board of education consisted of E. R. Thompson, president; James Van Buren, secretary; J. T. Williams, J. W. Milham, C. E. Tiffany, S. B. Hilliard. Their first tax was for \$2,700.

In September 17, 1858, the following resolution was adopted :

Resolved, That any scholar connected with the high or grammar department who shall be absent four half days in four consecutive weeks, without an excuse from the parent or guardian, given either in person or by written note, satisfying the teacher that the absences were caused by his own sickness or by sickness in the family, or some unavoidable occurrence, shall forfeit his or her seat in the school, and the teacher shall forthwith notify the parent. No pupil thus suspended shall be restored to school until he shall have given satisfactory assurance of punctuality in the future.

Thus early was inaugurated in the Dunkirk schools that system of punctuality which has since borne such excellent results. Teachers' meetings were established April 5th of the same year.

In the spring of 1859, Prof. James M. Cassety, a resident and graduate of Harvard, was made principal of the higher department, with supervisory power, at an annual salary of \$1,000. Hitherto, what grading there was, had been loose and unsystematic. Prof. Cassety at once introduced essentially the present system. The scholarship rapidly advanced. His efforts were appreciated, and a love of higher education was infused among the people. A branch school soon became necessary, and in 1862 the basement of the Baptist church was rented for school purposes.

Difficulties growing out of political issues during the war, led to Prof. Cassety's dismissal in 1864, a striking illustration of the arbitrary action of school boards. A disintegration of the school system was the consequence. The following fall Mr. Luther Hamon was engaged, but was dismissed at the end of the year. He was succeeded by David Beattie, of Port Jervis, at a salary of \$1,200. His first act was characteristic of the man and of a thorough superintendent. This was an examination of all teachers and applicants. Among the improvements introduced during his administration were a graded course of instruction and a system of monthly reports. In July, 1866, his salary was raised to \$1,500.

The growing inconvenience of the Baptist church basement led to a special meeting of the taxpayers in March, 1866, at which the sum of \$5,000 was voted for a building in the first ward now known as No. 2. In May following, at another special meeting the sum of \$11,000 was voted for school-houses Nos. 3 and 4. Bonds were issued for these amounts. The result was three spacious brick buildings built in convenient sections of the town, thus avoiding the too common mistake of herding a mass of children in one large central building. The Deer street school-house was opened November 26, 1866; the Smith street,

July 13, 1868; these were followed in 1868 by No. 5, after the same plan, at a cost of \$10,000.

Prof. Beattie was followed in 1868 by Prof. Cassety, who remained but one year, having accepted a position in the Fredonia Normal School. James Sheward, formerly president of the board, succeeded him at a salary of \$1,250. He remained until the following spring. Prof. A. H. Lewis then assumed charge of the schools for an equally short period. For some time afterwards the management was carried on by the board; members, especially Dr. Williams, visiting the departments frequently.

The next September the board secured the services of Prof. David Carver, of Binghamton, a graduate of Union College. His salary was fixed at \$1,800 and was afterwards raised to \$2,000. He restored the discipline, improved the grading, introduced blanks for monthly reports and established an honor roll. He was also very successful in diminishing the absence and tardiness of pupils. He remained three years, greatly esteemed as a man and a teacher. He was succeeded by the present incumbent in September, 1874, at a salary of \$1,200, afterwards increased to \$1,500.

During the past five years, the schools have steadily advanced in both discipline and scholarship. Nowhere is discipline more easily maintained or scholarship more satisfactory. The attitude of the people towards school regulations and teachers is most praiseworthy, the fairness and consideration of its board of education conspicuous. While other boards have been cutting down teachers' salaries and thus crippling their schools, they have refused to do so; at the same time they preserve a rigid system of entrance and annual examinations which precludes incompetence and elevates the teacher to her highest capacity.

The monthly reports place the schools of Dunkirk highest in the State for punctuality and regularity of attendance. The average per cent is seldom less than ninety-six and often over ninety-seven; while the tardiness of over a thousand pupils for a month ranges from five to eight hours. No better illustration of the value of this feature of our school system can be given than by contrasting with these facts the following extract from a report of Prof. David Beattie: "The great loss of time by absence cannot fail to attract attention. You see in the aggregate that it is very large (9,133 days), being, on an average, nearly twenty to each pupil. And should there be 7,614 cases of tardiness involving a loss of time over 260 school days? This, distributed among the average registration, would be nearly one-half a day each. I do not know what means to advise by which this evil may be overcome, unless power be given to remove pupils for continued tardiness." The moral and educational value of such improvements is incalculable.

EGBERTS INSTITUTE, COHOES.

By Principal OLIVER P. STEVES.

This institution was founded in the year 1864, through the enterprise and liberality of the late Egbert Egberts. The act of incorporation, chapter 526 of the Laws of 1864, presents the purposes of the founder, in these words :

AN ACT to incorporate Egberts Institute.

PASSED May 2, 1864.

SECTION 1. Charles N. Waldron, J. H. Hobart Brown, Frederick W. Flint, Henry L. Starks and William H. Maynard, are hereby constituted a body corporate by the name of "Egberts Institute," to be located in the village of Cohoes, Albany county. * * *

§ 2. The persons named in the first section shall be the first trustees of said corporation, and shall respectively hold their offices while they remain pastors of Protestant churches in Cohoes. The pastors of each and all of the Protestant churches in Cohoes, shall, while they remain pastors of said churches, respectively be trustees of Egberts Institute.

* * * * *

§ 4. It is the declared object and purpose of said corporation to promote the education of young men of the age of ten years and upwards in good morals, literature, science and the arts.

§ 5. The institute may grant to students under its charge diplomas as honorary testimonials, in form to be determined by it, but not the degrees usually conferred by colleges.

* * * * *

The first meeting of the board of trustees of Egberts Institute was held May 10, 1864, and Rev. C. N. Waldron was elected president, which office he still holds. Measures were taken for fitting the building conveyed to the institute by Mr. Egberts, for school purposes, and also for securing teachers. Accommodations were provided for forty pupils, and Rev. Alexander B. Bullions, son of Peter Bullions, the celebrated author, was elected principal, and entered upon his duties in September, 1864.

PROPERTY.

The value of the property conveyed to the institute by Mr. Egberts, as set forth in the report made by the trustees of the institute to the

Regents of the University on or about the 18th of November, 1864, was as follows :

Academy lot.....	\$2,000 00
Academy building and fixtures.....	10,000 00
Academy apparatus.....	32 00
Other academy property, consisting of real estate and tenements	8,000 00
Total value of property	<u>\$20,032 00</u>

The school was opened in September, 1864, but owing to the restriction of its advantages to boys only, the number of pupils was small. Accordingly, the trustees made application to the Legislature in December, 1864, for an amendment to the charter of the institute, enabling them to educate both girls and boys. This application must have been granted (although no record of the fact is made in the minutes of the board), as the names of girls are found in the rolls of succeeding terms.*

The school was continued under the trustees of the institute until 1868, when, at a meeting held July seventh, the following resolutions were presented:

Resolved, That the treasurer be and he is hereby authorized to execute on the part of the trustees a lease of the building now used for academic purposes, to the board of education of the village of Cohoes, for the term of three years, from the first of August ensuing, at an annual rent of fifty dollars, payable semi-annually on the first of February and on the first of August, on the following conditions:

1. That said board of education use said building for the purpose of establishing and carrying on an academic department, including the highest grades of studies now taught in the common schools of the State, and to be called the "Egberts High School."

2. That all alteration in the building be made at the expense of said board of education, said alterations to be made with the consent of a committee appointed by the trustees of Egberts Institute. Also, that the building, at the expense of the board of education, be kept in good condition and repair.

3. That the trustees of Egberts Institute reserve to themselves the full right to resume, if so disposed, at the end of said three years, the possession and occupancy of the building.

Resolved, That during the occupancy of the building by the board of education, the use of the school furniture, apparatus and fixtures, be granted to them, subject to the condition that they are not removed from the premises without the consent of the trustees of Egberts Institute.

The foregoing resolutions having been presented to the board of education, and approved by that body, the school was reorganized by it in August, 1868, as the academic department of the free schools of Cohoes,

* Section 4 of the act of 1864 was amended by chapter 247, Laws of 1865, by changing the words "young men" to "the young."—[Sec'y OF REGENTS.

under the name of Egberts High School, and is still subject to said board of education.

Although the school, from its opening, had reported annually to the Regents of the University, yet it received no appropriation from the Literature Fund until the year 1872. Upon investigation it was found that the Regents required the academy to possess apparatus to the value of \$150, and a library (other than the city school district library) to the value of \$150. The board of education immediately purchased the necessary apparatus, and the trustees of Egberts Institute donated to the school full sets of Appleton's New American Cyclopedias, Appleton's Annual Cyclopedias, Chamber's Encyclopedias, Knight's English Encyclopedias, Baldwin's Gazetteer and other valuable books and maps. These books are accessible to the pupils of the high school at all times when the school is in session, but must not be taken from the school room. The trustees of the institute have also purchased for the school a fine piano, and they likewise provide instruction in French, German and music for such pupils as may be designated by the principal. Prizes, consisting of two gold medals of the value of twenty-five dollars each, to be awarded, one for excellence in scholarship (in the senior class) and the other for excellence in composition, have been awarded by the trustees of the institute, and prizes consisting of books, valued at five dollars each, one to be awarded for scholarship (excepting the senior class) and the other for punctuality, have been awarded by the president of the board of education.

The present condition of the school is encouraging. Since the year 1872, it has been recognized by the Board of Regents in its annual reports, and in the distribution of the Literature Fund. The average enrollment of pupils is equal to the accommodations afforded by the school. Every chair is occupied, and the number of those who complete the course of study increases annually. During the past few years it has graduated thirty-five persons, sent seven young men to college, furnished twenty teachers to our city and some to other places, given two competent assistants to each of the banks in our city, and supplied many of our business men with clerks, bookkeepers or helpers in some other sphere. These facts, which represent the progress of the school during the past, as well as its present condition, lead us to hope that, in the future, Egberts High School will meet with the expectation of the people of Cohoes, maintain an honorable position among the academies of the State and prove itself worthy to bear the name of its honored founder.

TRUSTEES.

The following named persons have been, or are now, the trustees of Egberts Institute. The dates show the time of continuance in office :

	Appointed.	Resigned.
Rev. C. N. Waldron, D. D., president	May, 1864.	
J. H. Hobart Brown, S. T. D., treasurer..	May, 1864,	Jan., 1876
W. H. Maynard	May, 1864,	July, 1864
T. W. Carhart, secretary	May, 1864,	Apr., 1865
F. W. Flint	May, 1864,	July, 1866
R. R. Meredith, secretary	Apr., 1865,	Apr., 1867
A. J. Bingham,	July, 1865,	Sept., 1866
H. C. Sexton, secretary	Apr., 1867,	Apr., 1869
W. M. Johnson, secretary	Feb., 1868.	
L. S. Johnson.....	July, 1868.	
L. Marshall.....	Apr., 1869,	Apr., 1871
H. L. Grant	Apr., 1871,	Apr., 1874
C. R. Hawley	Apr., 1874,	Apr., 1875
W. H. Meeker	Apr., 1875.	
J. W. Gwynne....	Mar., 1876.	

TEACHERS.

The following named persons have been employed as teachers in the school since its organization :

Rev. A. B. Bullions, principal, from July, 1864, to February, 1865.
 Mr. C. P. Evans, principal, from February, 1865 to July, 1866.
 Rev. A. J. Bingham, principal, from September, 1866, to July, 1868.
 Mr. W. H. Nellis, principal, from October, 1868, to May, 1869.
 Mr. R. Hardie, principal, from August, 1869, to July, 1870.
 Mr. E. H. Torrey, principal, from August, 1870, to December, 1870.
 Mr. Oliver P. Steves, principal, from February, 1871.
 Miss Emma Osterhout, assistant, from October, 1872, to June, 1873.
 Miss Ella A. Page, assistant, from August, 1873, to March, 1875.
 Miss Mary L. D. Wilson, assistant, from April, 1875.

NEW YORK MEDICAL COLLEGE AND HOSPITAL FOR WOMEN.

Mrs. Clemence S. Lozier, M. D., was among the first lady graduates in a full scientific medical course in this country, and it is due to her to state that she was the originator of the plan for this college.

In the course of an extensive practice in New York city, the prevailing lack of intelligence, and the apathy in regard to the laws of life and health, forced themselves upon her attention, and at the solicitation of patients and friends she instituted a series of lectures, which were given in her own parlors, for the period of three years, on anatomy, physiology and hygiene.

The necessity for organized effort in order to secure the requisite opportunity for full scientific instruction and demonstration for female students became apparent, and enlisted the sympathy and co-operation of many others who earnestly interested themselves in aiding the execution of these plans.

The various avenues of remunerative labor had not so generally as now, been opened to women, and it became evident to them that in the profession of medicine, she might become the peer of man in trained usefulness and in pecuniary success. This is the profession of all others demanding that quickness of apprehension, ready sympathy, pureness of motive and delicacy of sentiment accorded to woman. As the Creator has committed the true interests of the family to the especial care of women, the treatment of the body in sickness falls most properly within her sphere of responsibility, and calls, therefore, for intelligent action on her part.

Difficulties were great, and many obstacles arose, as in other movements for the correction of public sentiment and established customs. The period of conflict with prejudice, self-interest, and pride of a privileged class, must ensue. But these difficulties could be overcome; these obstacles removed by patient and persistent action.

For centuries the monopoly of the rights and immunities of the practice of medicine had been conferred on men, until the idea had become fixed in the popular mind that man alone is capable of guiding the invalid in his search for health. When, therefore, the colleges were asked to unbar their doors to women, it excited ridicule, and the cry of indelicacy.

The few lady students, who, with modest bearing, sought knowledge in hospital clinics, were too often treated as if they had cast aside their

sacred honor and womanhood. If, then, the rising demand for female physicians was to be met, suitable facilities for their education must be provided in separate institutions for women, and in hospitals under a common board of trustees. Under the pressure of these considerations, the founders of this institution applied to the Legislature for an act of incorporation, which was granted in April, 1863. This result was aided by Senator Ezra Cornell, and other gentlemen of honorable record in the cause of liberal education.

An organization, under the charter, was soon effected, and the lectures commenced in hired rooms, and with very limited means of demonstration. Some of the professors generally gave their services, and friends of the work contributed funds for current expenses. A class of thirteen, who had nobly resisted all obstacles in their way, and had sought every available means of instruction, graduated at the end of the second year with credit to themselves and their professors. They located in different sections of the country, and, with a single exception, have, during a period of eleven years, been "living epistles, known and read" of many thousands, who would thankfully testify to the wisdom of founding colleges for the scientific training of earnest, capable women to administer curative remedies to the sick, and to become teachers and missionaries of sanitary reform in the families of the nation. The first board of trustees, twenty-nine in number, proved too large for the harmonious and orderly transaction of business. But time for the study of corporate responsibility, and the action of the Regents, under whose care the institution was early placed, effected relief from certain disorders arising from the usage, in this country, of tacitly permitting the dean and professors of medical schools to exercise all the administrative functions, as well as that of teaching. Harmony restored, the trustees were, from time to time, encouraged, by larger contributions from individuals, and by city and State appropriations. They were thus enabled to purchase and fit up a building at a cost of \$43,000; also, apparatus charts, models, etc., for illustration, of \$3,000 value. As soon as the mortgage on the property was canceled, and a little money left in the treasury, the hospital department and the dispensary for women and children were opened under powers that had been given in an amendment of the charter. This was effected in six years from the first organization, and the institution was no longer regarded as only an experimental enterprise.

Broader aims than charity and mere didactic teachings were cherished.

It was deemed of highest importance that those who were to stand between the life and death, disease and health of their clients, should become familiar with morbid conditions, and able to generalize them while under the supervision of their professors. An essential part of

the plan was, therefore, a larger and more perfectly organized hospital, and also such an endowment as would secure permanence under all circumstances. Always hoping to advance in the attainment of these ends, the trustees sought strength by union with another hospital. This project failed in 1873. With the same objects in view, they were induced, by assurances of aid from medical gentlemen, in 1874, to sell their building, and to secure the ample grounds and mansion now in use. A heavy debt was thus incurred. The almost unparalleled financial embarrassment of the country which followed, suspended advance toward the more perfect organization, yet \$45,000 have been paid on the site, and \$14,000 additional have been generously remitted by Mr. Steinway, who holds the mortgage, as a testimony of his confidence in the financial management and his appreciation of the work.

The college has graduated ninety-four, and these ladies have found everywhere abundant exercise for their knowledge.

Numerous cases of sick poor have been treated from the dispensary, and an average of more than 100 charity patients per annum in the hospital.

Gentlemen of integrity and financial experience have been added to the board of trustees, and a medical staff of skilled physicians give their services in the hospital.

Though embarrassed by the pressure of the times, the trustees are trusting in God and the need of the work, and are serving by waiting.

NEW YORK COLLEGE OF DENTISTRY.

SKETCH OF ITS ORIGIN.

For several years previous to the organization of the New York College of Dentistry, it was thought desirable by many gentlemen in the profession that an institution should be established in the city of New York for the purpose of teaching dental surgery. With this idea in view, an effort to obtain an act of incorporation by the Legislature of the State was made by several gentlemen most interested, which resulted in the passage of the act chapter 264 of the Laws of 1865, entitled "An act to incorporate the New York College of Dentistry," passed March 31, 1865.

In June, 1865, the board of trustees and directors succeeded in effecting an organization as follows: President, Dr. George E. Hawes; vice-president, Rev. Robt. R. Booth, D. D.; secretary, M. McN. Walsh, Esq.; treasurer, Dr. Charles E. Francis.

In September of the same year, the following named gentlemen were elected as a faculty, viz.: Norman W. Kingsley, Faneuil D. Weisse, M. D., R. King Browne, M. D., Wm. H. Atkinson, M. D., D. D. S., Wm. H. Dwinnelle, M. D., Wm. H. Allen and Charles Butler.

No organization was attempted, however, by these gentlemen as a faculty.

For some unexplained reason, at about this time, September, 1865, the president of the board of trustees, Dr. George E. Hawes, tendered his resignation as presiding officer, and also as trustee of the college. His resignation was accepted, and Rev. R. R. Booth, D. D., was elected president, at a meeting of the board held on the evening of the thirtieth of the same month. At the same meeting the vacancy in the board was filled by the election of Alex. N. Gunn, M. D.

A code of by-laws was reported, by a committee which had previously been appointed, which was adopted.

In December, 1865, Drs. C. A. Marvin and A. C. Hawes resigned as trustees; and in the following month, January, 1866, the vacancies thus occasioned in the board were filled by the election of Drs. Eleazar Parmly and John Allen.

The trustees, feeling the necessity, and desiring the co-operation of the profession in this city and Brooklyn, passed a resolution inviting several of the most prominent dentists in the two cities to meet with

them, and suggest, if possible, some practical way by which the college might more perfectly organize, and commence its labors as an educational institution. The joint meeting was held in March, 1866, at which time several "plans" were presented, and many valuable suggestions offered, but none of them seemed to the trustees to be altogether practicable. In the following month, however, Prof. Faneuil D. Weisse, M. D., came to the rescue with his ideas, arranged in the form of a "plan," for organizing and conducting the college proper, which was adopted, as follows:

- I. A didactic course of instruction, to be conducted by a faculty.
- II. That a dental infirmary be established in connection with the college, and as a department thereof, where clinical instruction and opportunities for operating, will be afforded the students daily (ten months in the year).
- III. The appointment of a corps of clinical lecturers, who shall give daily clinics at the infirmary. These lecturers are to be appointed by the board of trustees, including the faculty.
- IV. That the course of instruction shall include three years.
- V. The first two years to be occupied in attendance upon the didactic and clinical lectures of the college.
- VI. That at the close of the second year a satisfactory written and oral examination of the faculty will be required. On the didactic course a second examination at the chair before a board of clinical lecturers, will be required for admission to the third year course of experimental practice in the infirmary, where the student will serve the third year as acting dentist to the infirmary. At the completion of the third year the student shall be eligible to the diploma of the college, conferring the degree of D. D. S.
- VII. That the board of trustees be empowered to confer the honorary degree of "Fellow of the College of Dentistry," upon such members of the profession as have made a valuable contribution to the science of dentistry.
- VIII. Graduates of medical and dental colleges will be required to attend at least one course of lectures, and pass both examinations, before they can receive the degree of D. D. S.
- IX. Students who have attended one course of lectures at a medical or dental college, shall be required to attend at least one course of didactic and clinical lectures, pass the two examinations, and serve the year in the infirmary.
- X. Practitioners in good standing, of five years' practice, shall, on passing the two examinations, be eligible to all the honors of the college.

At a regular meeting of the board of trustees, held on the 1st day of May, 1866, the following named gentlemen were elected officers of the board for the ensuing year, viz.:

President, Rev. R. R. Booth, D. D.; vice-president, Dr. W. H. Allen; secretary, M. McN. Walsh, Esq.; treasurer, Dr. C. E. Francis.

The faculty for the year was then elected, and their chairs established as follows:

Eleazar Parmly, M. D., D. D. S., Emeritus Professor of the Institute of Dentistry.

Wm. H. Dwinelle, M. D., D. D. S., Professor of Dental Science and Operative Dentistry.

Norman W. Kingsley, Professor of Dental Art and Mechanism.

J. Smith Dodge, Jr., M. D., D. D. S., Professor of Dental Pathology and Therapeutics.

Faneuil D. Weisse, M. D., Professor of Descriptive and Comparative Anatomy. •

Rufus King Browne, M. D., Professor of Experimental Physiology and Microscopy.

Chas. A. Seely, A. M., Professor of Chemistry and Metallurgy.

DEMONSTRATORS.

D. H. Goodwillie, M. D., D. D. S., Operative Dentistry; R. M. Streeter, Mechanical Dentistry; Alex. W. Stein, M. D., Anatomy.

On June 4, 1866, the Rev. R. R. Booth, D. D., resigned as president of the board, and Dr. Eleazar Parmly was elected to that position.

On motion it was resolved that the collegiate course of the New York College of Dentistry, for the first year, commence on the 1st of November, 1866, and continue four months.

The following named gentlemen were elected clinical lecturers for the year, viz.:

Dr. Ehrick Parmly, New York; Dr. John Allen, New York; Dr. J. D. White, Philadelphia; Dr. Wm. H. Allen, New York; Dr. J. J. Wetherbee, Boston; Dr. W. B. Roberts, New York; Dr. C. A. Marvin, Brooklyn; Dr. A. C. Hawes, New York; Dr. A. McIlroy, New York; Dr. W. W. Allport, Chicago; Dr. George E. Hawes, New York; Dr. Asa Hill, Norwalk, Conn.; Dr. J. N. H. Walbridge, New York; Dr. Chas. B. Forster, Utica; Dr. L. G. Bartlett, New York; Dr. J. T. Metcalf, New Haven; Dr. R. W. Varney, New York; Dr. Frank Abbott, New York.

In the organization of the faculty, Dr. Norman W. Kingsley was elected dean; and in the organization of the clinical board, Dr. John Allen was elected president, and Dr. Frank Abbott, Secretary.

On the 8th day of October, 1866, Drs. E. G. Roy, Alex. N. Gunn, and the Rev. Dr. Booth, resigned as trustees, and Dr. J. Smith Dodge, Sr., was elected a trustee to fill one of the vacancies.

In accordance with the previous resolution, the first session of the college opened on the first of November, 1866, with thirty-one students, in rooms previously fitted for the purpose, at 161 Fifth avenue.

During the sixteen weeks of the session there were delivered about 160 didactic lectures, and some eighty clinical lectures.

In December, 1866, Dr. Geo. A. Mills resigned as a trustee, and Drs. Norman W. Kingsley and Benj. Lord were elected trustees.

The first commencement of the college took place on the 6th of March, 1867, at Steinway Hall, at which time nine gentlemen graduated. A very interesting and instructive address was delivered to the graduates by Dr. W. W. Allport, of Chicago. In this same month, the vacancy which existed in the board of trustees was filled by the election of Dr. Edwin J. Dunning.

On the 11th of April, 1867, Dr. Walter B. Roberts reported that he had succeeded in obtaining the following amendment to the charter of the college, which may be found in chapter 243 of the Laws of 1867, entitled "An act to amend an act to incorporate the New York College of Dentistry, passed March 31, 1865," passed April 3, 1867:

SECTION 1. The board of trustees of the New York College of Dentistry may confer the honorary degree of "Fellow of the College of Dentistry" (F. C. D.), upon such persons as have made or shall have made, valuable contributions to the science of dentistry, upon the recommendation of the board of professors of said college, with the consent of the Regents of the University.

[For leading facts and statistics showing the subsequent progress of the institution, see the Annual Reports to the Regents of the University. —SEC'Y OF REGENTS.]

UNION COLLEGE, SCHENECTADY.

INGHAM UNIVERSITY, LE ROY.

Printed copies of historical sketches of these two institutions, prepared at the request of the United States Commissioner of Education, for the centennial celebration at Philadelphia, have been received. It is understood that these sketches will appear in full in the annual report of said Commissioner for 1876.

UNIVERSITY NECROLOGY.

JOHN JAY KNOX.By Professor EDWARD NORTH, L. H. D.

Oneida county lost one of its most venerable and estimable citizens in the death of General John Jay Knox, which occurred at his home in Knoxboro, Monday evening, January 31, 1876. He was born in Canajoharie, Montgomery county, May 18, 1791, and removed from his native place to Augusta, in the year 1811. The town of Augusta, in southern Oneida, was then but sparsely settled, and the unpretending hamlet with which he proposed to identify his life, then contained a single store, a blacksmith's shop, a school-house and six or eight dwellings.

Emigrants from New England had made a small beginning twenty years before. The forests had fallen away on every side before the ax of the pioneer. The highways were open, though still rough, when the young emigrant with his blooming bride, drove into town in the first buggy wagon which Augusta had seen, with its newly-invented wooden springs. Utica was then a thriving incorporated village, with a population of about 1,800. Hamilton College was a flourishing academy, under the charge of Preceptor Seth Norton.

John Jay Knox was the first merchant of any note in the town of Augusta. He soon conquered a central position in the business of the town, a position of large and various influence; similar to that held by Orrin Gridley in Clinton, and Abraham Van Eps in Vernon. His capital, at the outset, was represented not so much by money and real estate as by hopeful energy, an undoubted capacity for business, a social and buoyant enthusiasm which no obstacle could subdue, a sterling integrity which no temptation of sordid gain could overmaster. It was not long before General Knox had graven his own character upon the community about him. His thrift made others thrifty. His gentle, winning ways made his neighbors ashamed to be rough. His wide intelligence taught others the value of knowledge. His honest dealing was a guide for the business men of Augusta, who thus got more from his store than they paid for in money. His frugal and strictly temperate habits emphasized his earnest appeals to the wayward and erring. His influence came to be almost supreme in the village. Neighbors at

strife appealed to him to settle their differences, and he walked among them in the simple, untitled majesty of an honest, unselfish, incorruptible citizenship.

It was natural that such a man should prosper in business, and accumulate wealth. His good sense and judgment were seldom at fault. His industry was restless. Robust health obeyed the calls of untiring mental activity. His wagons and sleighs, loaded with grain and potash, were familiar with the turnpike to Albany, whence they returned with dry-goods and groceries for his country store. Much of his property was accumulated by barter with the Indians, who were then his near neighbors.

It was not long before the influence of General Knox began to be felt beyond the borders of his township.

In 1828 he was elected one of the trustees of Hamilton College, and held this office for forty-eight years. At the time of his death he was the oldest member of the board of trustees, and had been its presiding officer for twenty-nine years. In the administration of college affairs he was associated with such men as Joshua A. Spencer, Charles P. Kirkland, S. Newton Dexter, Samuel B. Woolworth, Hiram Denio, Henry A. Foster, Horatio Seymour, Othniel S. Williams, William J. Bacon, and other eminent citizens, who were loyal to his leadership and wisdom in council. He was rarely absent from any regular or special meeting of the board of trustees—not more than once or twice in forty-eight years. His tall, lithe figure, his keen, quick eye, his genial, hearty greeting, always welcomed his fellow-trustees at their annual visit to the college hall. Each of the seven presidents of Hamilton College rejoiced in his personal friendship. He assisted officially at the inauguration of Presidents Dwight, Penney, North, Fisher and Brown.

In 1836 General Knox was elected president of the Oneida County Bible Society, and held that office at the time of his death. For forty years he presided at almost every annual meeting of this society. He had a special fondness and zeal for the work of Christian beneficence. He carried his religion into his daily life. The sincerity of his religious convictions was attested by a generous giving of his means, his time, and his characteristic enthusiasm. His entire life was a spotless, beautiful record of Christian fidelity.

General Knox was the father of a remarkable family. He was married October 7, 1813, to Sarah Ann Curtiss, who lived to celebrate, with him, the sixtieth anniversary of their wedding-day. On that memorable occasion, five sons and four daughters were present with their children and children's children. Of the sons, Rev. Dr. William E. Knox is now pastor of the Presbyterian church in Elmira, and known throughout the land as equally a power in the pulpit, in forensic debate, and in

the use of a trenchant pen. Another son, Hon. John Jay Knox, fills, worthily, an important place in our national administration as comptroller of the currency at Washington. A third son, Henry M. Knox, is a successful banker at St. Paul, Minnesota; and a fourth, Rev. Dr. Charles E. Knox, is president of the German Theological Seminary at Bloomfield, N. J. All these are graduates of Hamilton College, and after their names on the triennial catalogue follow the names of Benjamin Rhodes, a son of Eugenie Knox Rhodes, one of General Knox's daughters, and William Strong Knox, another grandson. Knox Williams, an only son of the eldest daughter, died the death of a hero in his country's service previous to his graduation; and Rev. Dr. W. E. Knox emulates the spirit of his father by sending three sons to the college — John H. Knox, George W. Knox and Robert J. Knox.

It was a befitting and graceful honor that when the trustees of Hamilton College, at their last annual meeting, came to the filling of the seat left vacant by the death of John Jay Knox, their choice fell unanimously upon the son who inherits so much of his father's devotion to the cause of higher education.

BERNICE D. AMES.

Rev. B. D. Ames, principal of Mechanicville Academy, died January 5, 1876. He was born in Shoreham, Vt., December 26, 1827. In early life he had a strong desire for literary acquirements, and graduated at Middlebury College with high honor, in 1853. He taught for a time in Fort Plain Seminary, where he became acquainted with Miss Sarah E. King, a member of the same faculty, to whom he was married March 20, 1854. Both were subsequently connected with the faculty of Fort Edward Collegiate Institute. He was pastor successively of the Methodist churches in Dorset, Brandon, and Charlotte, Vt. After leaving the active work of the ministry in consequence of ill-health, he was elected principal of the Providence (R. I.) Conference Seminary. At the breaking out of the late civil war, he entered earnestly upon the work of the U. S. Christian Commission, and proved himself an efficient worker. In the year 1868, he became principal of Mechanicville Academy, with Mrs. Ames as preceptress, under the administration of whom the institution has greatly flourished. He retained possession of his mental faculties to the last, and spoke calmly and trustfully of his departure. This occurred just one year to a day after that of his daughter Florence.

L. HARRISON, CHENEY, A. M.

Professor Cheney lost his life on the 15th of July, 1876, by an accident, the particulars of which are not given, while engaged upon a geological survey extending through some of the mountains of south-eastern Missouri and thence into Tennessee. Mr. Cheney was a graduate of the State Normal School at Albany, in 1852. After teaching a year and a half at Marcellus, he assisted for a time in the preparation of French's Gazetteer of the State of New York. He was Principal of Baldwinsville Academy during a period of eight years at one time and three at another. He also taught three years at Joliet, Ill., two years at St. Louis, Mo., and some years more in the Normal Schools at Warrensburgh and Cape Girardeau in the same State.

Although his death occurred a few days after the Convocation of 1876, it is thought proper to insert this brief notice in this volume of proceedings.

ON THE ENDOWMENT OF OUR HIGHER EDUCATIONAL
INSTITUTIONS FOR WOMEN.

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The intellectual and moral condition of woman is a sure criterion of a nation's civilization. The world's history furnishes many illustrations of this truth. Among savages and barbarians, woman is bought and sold as cattle are, her price varying according to her fitness for hard labor and her ability to procreate. In a semi-civilized state, she becomes an article of luxury, collected in herds in the harems of the rich, and valued in proportion to her power to minister to her master's love of pleasure or lust. Higher in the scale she becomes her husband's sole and fond companion, the sharer of his joys and his sorrows; but she still lives in a world of her own and experiences little sympathy for what chiefly engrosses his thoughts and cares. But last and best of all, in the civilization which pure Christianity alone can confer, we find woman the complement of man, the heart in copartnership with the head, the two harmonious in their tastes, plans and pursuits, the woman "a help *meet* for the man."

So likewise progress in civilization is always indicated by an improvement in the moral and intellectual condition of woman. It cannot be otherwise as long as she holds the position for which nature made her; for she not only exerts a powerful personal influence upon the other sex, but as a mother it is hers to mold and fashion in their tender years, the character of the boys and girls that are to be the men and women of succeeding generations. Four women were the prime movers of the famous Sepoy rebellion in India, by which thousands of lives were sacrificed and heart-rending cruelties perpetrated. And on the other hand, the infancy and childhood of the incarnate Son of the Most High, were committed to the tender and watchful care of a woman. Statesmen and legislators have recognized her influence upon the destinies of a nation. Said Napoleon: "What France needs most is mothers." And the Pagan rulers who persecuted the early Christians exclaimed: "What women these people have!"

But we do not propose to offer a dissertation on the power of woman or the influence she exerts upon the character of the race. We desire to call special attention to the provisions existing among us for the

education of woman; thereby, in the first place, defining our relative position in civilization, as far as it is affected by this one fact; and, in the second place, pointing out the line of improvement which will insure our real and homogeneous mental and moral development as a people.

The education of woman has been a plant of slow growth among us, but yet none the less real and sure. More than a thousand years ago the religion of Islam required all girls under age to attend school with the boys so that they should be able to commit to memory the Namaz or five daily prayers and the Friday worship; and we know that while the dark ages wrapped Christian Europe with the shades of barbarism, science and literature flourished in the three capitals of the Muslim world. An educated Christian woman was a *rara avis* even in the age of Elizabeth; and a daughter of Milton, only 200 years ago, was forbidden to learn any language save the English, "because one tongue was enough for a woman." House work and embroidery were the sole occupation of most of the women of the last century, and the education of the few who have become celebrated, was obtained at great expense from private instruction. In this country the doors of the public school were usually closed against the admission of the fair sex, so long as the ideas of the old world prevailed. Boston alone—the intellectual hub, certainly, of the country in those early days—shone conspicuous in the general darkness. Her shrewd school committee discovered that during the long summer days the schools were nearly empty and the teachers lying on their oars, the boys evidently preferring robbing birds' nests or working out of doors. So they bethought them of getting their money's worth by admitting into the schools a bevy of girls who gave up the pleasures of outside life to avail themselves of this only and precious chance; for they continued to be debarred of schooling from October to April. Strange, indeed, that this system was practiced during a century and a half in the virgin atmosphere of North America! But the declaration of independence was a breaking up of the old world intellectual shackles; and only seven years after its recognition by the great European powers, woman was installed in the public school by the side of her brothers and cousins. It was thus that starting from the thirteenth year of the first century of the Republic, the women of America have, sometimes with our help and too often alas! against the wishes of some of us, pushed their gentle way successively into the primary school, the academy and high school, the normal school for the training of teachers, the college and university in all its departments of medicine, and even of law and theology! A great triumph this over the world's prejudices; a triumph of justice and right such as was never witnessed before by any nation under the whole heaven,

ancient or modern. Well may we be proud of our civilization, illustrating, as it does, the great Christian truth that "in the presence of the Most High, there is neither male nor female, neither bond nor free, but all are one." Our literary and scientific institutions do not, indeed, claim that hoary antiquity which invests those of England, Germany or France; our libraries are comparatively small; our museums and art galleries meager and poor; our professors have been too busy with their paramount work of teaching, to find leisure to pursue progressive studies and startle the world by their discoveries; but education of the best and most practical kind is spreading in our land among all classes, both rich and poor, more than elsewhere, and with time the fruit cannot fail to appear.

We are sure that a great point will have been gained when *every* school, college and university, in all its branches, shall have been opened to every member of our commonwealth, of both sexes; for the deed is not fully accomplished. It is their right, and every one desirous of instruction should be heartily welcomed to the fountains of knowledge. Truth ignores castes; it flows forth from the Creator, free as the air we breathe, or the water we drink, and no one can claim its exclusive possession.

But while we insist upon the rights of all, of either sex, we would, by no means, be understood as advocating an indiscriminating system of education, which recognizes no mental difference whatsoever between man and woman, and has no reference to the spheres they are respectively to occupy. We pay attention to age, capacity, and physical strength in our schools; and young pupils are not dealt with like those who are older. So, likewise, we never send a candidate for the Gospel ministry to a school of mines, nor a future doctor to a military academy. And would it not be as great a blunder to teach law or civil engineering to a future wife and mother, or to send a girl to a school of mechanics? We should not, indeed, close the doors of any of our schools against the fair sex; but, on the other hand, we ought not to compel our daughters to acquire a man's education or none at all; nor should we so modify our schools that they will fully meet the wants of neither sex. Up to a certain age, it is now universally conceded that the two can attend the same schools to their mutual advantage. This will apply to the infant and the primary school, to the village academy, and the high-school. Those who purpose becoming teachers may also study, profitably, in the mixed normal school. But, surely, the college curriculum, unmodified, is not the very thing we should select as the best average programme for the mental and moral training of our educated women, or as that which will best fit them for their future sphere. Though more than a hundred colleges and other high institutions have opened

their doors to women, and are begging them to come in, it appears, by the last official report of the Bureau of Education in Washington, that few have availed themselves of the privilege, by far the greater number preferring a more expensive education among their sisters, or even none at all. Here are the statistics on this point, which deserve special attention as indicating the state of public opinion among the families of the land. There were, in 1874, 104 colleges, universities, and scientific schools in the United States which admitted both sexes; they contained, in all, no less than 5,745 young men, and (mark the difference!) only 2,067 young women. On the other hand, there were, in the same year, 244 higher institutions, chiefly seminaries, so-called, exclusively devoted to female education, and they contained no less than 15,923 pupils, or four times the ratio of the mixed schools, although far more expensive! And it should be remembered that most of the mixed colleges are located in the west, where there exist, as yet, no institutions in which girls can be educated by themselves.

We are aware that Oberlin College is claimed to be an ample refutation of the principle we have just laid down. Here is an institution, we are told, which was commenced forty-two years ago upon the basis of the mingling of the sexes; it has lived down the obloquy heaped upon it, from a variety of quarters, and now enjoys the esteem, confidence and love of the people; it shows a goodly array of 400 students, one-half of either sex. Well done, Oberlin! But so far from being an argument against us, it is the best possible clincher to our plea. In Oberlin the two sexes neither follow the same course of study, nor undergo the same discipline, although the institution is in a large measure a normal school. The ladies' and gentlemen's departments are perfectly distinct. Moreover, although the latter is open to the young ladies, yet *only fourteen chose to avail* themselves of the privilege in 1874, while 185 (!) preferred to join the department organized for their special benefit. Oberlin brings the sexes together socially, but gives each a distinct training suited to its nature and its future sphere. Unlike this time-honored system, the experiment is now being tried of separating the sexes socially, but giving the girls precisely the college education of the boys. We believe that failure will be the result, and that its present advocates will soon be convinced of their error. Vassar has already left the parallel track by giving a large place to æsthetic studies. Handsome buildings and modern conveniences may for a time be as attractive as a new hive to a swarm of bees; but permanent success chiefly depends on an education which meets the real wants of the age.

Here then, we venture to say, is the result of the experience of the first hundred years of our self-governing national life. Our daughters,

like our sons, should be thoroughly educated for their life work. They may study side by side in the primary, the high, and even the normal school, sharpening each other's intellects by hourly friction and competition. In exceptional cases they may profitably meet even in higher branches. But there is a very general, not to say a universal feeling, that certainly after the age of fifteen, a young lady needs a training specially adapted to supply her intellectual, moral and æsthetic needs, and to the sphere of her future labors; and that this can be done only in schools organized for her special benefit. This feeling cannot be disregarded; moreover we believe it is founded in reason and should be cherished by making it an important element in our plans for female education.

And now we call special attention to a very important fact in the history of education among us. We have erected colleges and universities for our young men, in numbers sufficient for many generations yet to come, be the increase of population what it may; we have added schools of science, theology, law and medicine, and have reasonably endowed the greater portion by both private liberality and public munificence. This should be so; it is a wise foundation for our national superstructure; we should by no means leave off this good work, but carry it on to perfection. But how, meanwhile, stands the case with the higher education of our women? Have they no need of well furnished and endowed institutions, of sufficiently remunerated teachers and professors, of well stocked libraries and museums, and of apparatus, of aid to indigent but promising students, of prizes and of premiums? And where can they find these advantages, unless they will renounce their own nature, accept the curriculum and discipline of the other sex, and thus "pick the crumbs that fall from the master's tables?"

There are as yet, in the whole country, but *seven* collegiate institutions for woman's sole benefit, against 275 exclusively appropriated to the other sex; and the latter have, in all, no less than 577 colleges, universities, and scientific, theological, law, and medical schools, more or less endowed by the public, while the women possess but 244, all told; and nearly all are the result of personal enterprise on the part of teachers, mostly women, Roman Catholic institutions excepted.

Here, then, is the weak spot, we might almost say the running sore of our body politic, for our men will never be other than their mothers make them. As we said at the beginning, the condition of woman is the criterion of a nation's civilization, and as long as we make no adequate provision for her special benefit, as we do for the other sex, but let her higher education take care of itself, the only thing that can save us from disgrace lies alone in the fact that other nations are sunk still lower than ourselves. But let us examine this point more carefully,

and by comparing the educational advantages of each of the sexes, learn our national prospects, and our duty as to the future.

In making this comparison, the first important fact we meet has reference to the number of both sexes who are actually pursuing a higher education. These numbers are, of young men, 51,790, and of young women only 18,465, or nearly as three to one, a significant disproportion, which calls for a remedy. But we should examine the subject more minutely if we would fully understand it. We have already stated that there are 104 mixed institutions of a high order, with 5,745 students of one sex, and 2,067 of the other. There are, besides, 151 theological and law schools, which are thrown out of the account. The military and naval schools do not, of course, come into the reckoning in any shape. After making these deductions, we reach a reasonable plane for making a comparison, and find the numbers to stand as follows, viz.:

Four hundred and twenty-six colleges and other institutions of the highest rank for males, with 36,006 male students; and 244 higher institutions for females, with 15,923 female students, or about as two and a half to one.

It may, perhaps, be claimed that this evident inequality in the educational status of the sexes, fraught, as it must necessarily be, with most serious evils, is owing simply to the giddiness and indifference of our daughters. Why open the doors of our colleges, it is asked, or why build colleges for their special benefit, seeing they will not enter in? We reply that their appreciation of a higher education is established by too many and too strong proofs to be called into question, and their apparent neglect meets with an adequate explanation in the additional facts we shall now proceed to unfold.

This brings us to the next point worthy of our attention, which is the amount of capital invested in the higher education of young men and young women respectively, comprising the money value of the grounds, buildings, libraries, museums, etc., of their institutions. Such property sums up, in the case of young men's institutions, to the handsome amount of \$40,290,725, in that of mixed schools to \$11,424,858, and in the case of girls' schools, to \$11,018,684. It should, however, be borne in mind that by far the greater number of the 104 mixed schools we speak of, should really be considered as belonging to the stronger sex; for women are there, so to speak, only on sufferance, and follow a programme which was not made for themselves. They also number but half as many as the men in those institutions; we will, however, avoid all appearance of unfairness by henceforth throwing the mixed schools wholly out of the account, and comparing only the institutions which exclusively belong to either sex. And we hesitate not to say that the two capitals, the one of \$40,000,000 for the boys, and the other of

only \$11,000,000 for the girls, are far out of a just and fair proportion, especially when we consider that the former is entirely the gift of the public, while the latter mostly represents the earnings of laborious and self-denying teachers. Is this right? Is it just, or is it wise? Have we reached the greatest attainable height of civilization, or are we still toiling on the steep hill side?

But there is still another point, in some respects the most important of all, both as a touchstone to the real state of the case and as pointing out the true and only efficient remedy. It refers to the *endowment* of our higher educational institutions.

The facts of the case are as follows:

The institutions of the higher class, which are engaged in the education of young men to the exclusion of women, possess funds yielding the following *yearly income* applicable to the salaries of professors, and the increase of libraries and apparatus. (The schools of law and the military and naval schools, are of course omitted.)

	Income.
For young men: 275 colleges.....	\$1,381,622
113 theological schools	474,164
99 medical schools.....	24,310
52 scientific schools	420,657
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A total of 539 schools, with.....	\$2,300,753

Over against this the institutions for the exclusive education of women possess the following incomes:

5 colleges have a yearly income of	\$14,000
239 seminaries have a yearly income of.....	19,670
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A total of 244 schools with a yearly income of..... \$33,670

Two millions and a quarter against 33,000 — as sixty-seven to one!

But there is more than even this. Our legislators are *men*; women are not allowed a voice in the choice of their rulers, though in some countries they may become the heads of the State. And so our law-givers, chiefly concerned for the interests of their own sex, though already so well provided for, made an additional grant to the boys (in 1874) of no less than \$750,154, and at the same time cast a crumb of \$3,500 to the girls! This makes an average per school in the first case, of \$1,300, and in the latter of just ten dollars and twenty-four cents!

And when we come to add up on both sides, the income from invested funds and the gifts of the State, we find that the boys have received \$3,014,199, and the girls only \$37,170 — or as eighty-two to one!

Let us not be misunderstood. We do not believe that too much is done for the education of our young men. But it is even more certain

that no adequate provision is made for the higher education of our young women. We by no means claim that equal advantages should be enjoyed by both sexes; man's activity must ever occupy the larger sphere, and his preparation must, therefore, be ampler and more diversified. Still a due proportion must be maintained if we would avoid obvious and serious evils, and no one will claim that such a proportion has been reached, or that woman has yet, in this respect, met with justice at man's hand.

We have now done with statistics; they are dry but important. Mathematics form the skeleton of the universe. Numbers are facts, and facts are the only sound foundations of reasoning. Let us look at the meaning of our numerical items and survey the situation from the lofty position they have enabled us to reach.

The small endowment of girls' compared to boys' schools, renders education far more expensive to the former; for the salaries of teachers, the repairs of the buildings, and usually every other item of expense must, necessarily, be met by the pupils themselves. Few, therefore, can afford to go to school after the age of fourteen; and many that do go must work for their support while studying, and sit up late at night or teach school beyond their strength. The health of very many is seriously injured by the time they graduate; and our educated women are in general notoriously feeble and sickly. Their brothers and cousins are often lodged, while at college, in handsome rooms with all the modern improvements and conveniences, while they, "the weaker sex," have to "rough it in garret and cellar," and for even this pay a higher price. A cry went forth not long since that the theological students at Auburn needed better dormitories, and a building was immediately raised for their accommodation, worth \$100,000; whereas we could point to more than one institution in the neighborhood of Auburn, where the future reverends are won't to select their wives, whose superannuated dormitories have become any thing but enjoyable to the inmates; yet the public mind remains quite unconcerned. We have education boards and societies which collect our contributions to aid indigent students in divinity, and it is very well. But who ever heard of a society to help educate ministers' wives? There are free scholarships in our young men's colleges, class funds, aid to the indigent, prizes, rewards, and the like; but feeble woman is left to struggle unassisted and unencouraged, unless her parents possess both the power and the inclination to aid her. A single theological seminary in this State, Union, possesses an endowment which yields a yearly income more than twice as large as that of all the 244 colleges and seminaries for young ladies in the entire United States!

The poverty of our institutions for the higher education of women, has still another and a more deleterious effect. Their professors and teachers are inadequately remunerated and overworked; they have no chance to acquire that mental growth which is necessary to render their instructions impressive and attractive. And they lack the books whereby they can keep up with the progress of science and the apparatus where-with they can expound its mysteries to their pupils.

There is but one remedy for these evils; it consists in an adequate endowment. Let our past experience teach us to crown the good work done in the closing century by completing it during the century to come, and, having endowed our schools for young men, let us now endow those for young women. It belongs to the empire State to lead the way in this thing; for she chartered the first collegiate institute, the first college, and the first university for women in the United States; even New England has come dragging along behind; but she is now fairly roused and may yet outstrip us, if we fail of our duty. We should not waste our resources by multiplying our schools, nor by making new experiments. We must follow the course which has built up Harvard, Yale and Princeton, and concentrate our energies upon a few points, by strengthening such institutions as have stood the test of time and making use of their experience and history. And we ought to erect not so much showy structures of brick or of stone, as the more solid foundations of intellectual and moral power. So, when our successors shall come together at the next centennial, they will not fail, both men and women, to do justice to our foresight and our patriotism.

COMPARATIVE LITERATURE.

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Literature is a vast subject, and what is called universal literature is not only vast, but too often vague. Vast as it is, however, and impossible to be mastered fully in even *one* of its most limited departments, the general student must know something about the different literatures of all periods and all nations. He cannot afford to devote himself only to one language and one author. Literary criticism is utterly inadequate without some knowledge of the best thought of every time. As Mr. Freeman says of history, "of some branches the student must know every thing, but of every branch he must know something," so may we say of literature. And the method in which this study can be best pursued is that which is pursued in anatomy, in language, in mythology, and recently applied by Mr. Freeman to politics, namely, the comparative. The literary productions of all ages and peoples can be classed, can be brought into comparison and contrast, can be taken out of their isolation as belonging to one nation, or one separate era, and be brought under divisions as the embodiment of the same æsthetic principles, the universal laws of mental, social and moral development: the same in India and in England; in Hellas, with its laughing sea, and Germany, with its sombre forests.

In a certain sense we can make no criticism without instituting a comparison. But comparative literature is vastly more than this. It traces out the analogies that exist between the literary productions of remotest nations, the peculiarities which distinguish each as belonging to a particular period of social and mental development, the variations in type with the causes, thus bringing together related points of excellence and power, with the exceptional results produced by peculiarities of climate, race, and surrounding institutions.

Thus the great works of the intellect warmed and tinged by the emotions, which alone come under the head of literature, can be studied, can be brought together in groups, as epic, lyric and dramatic poetry; as history, philosophy and eloquence, under as many subdivisions as the character of the curriculum of study will allow. Literature begins, when thoughts and emotions are expressed in artistic forms, whether spoken or written. And these expressions may be grouped under

different forms and divisions, each the embodiment and unfolding of man's nature adapting itself to great human wants. These forms present themselves under the same characteristic features; for no form was ever invented, and none ever will be. Hence as there is nothing arbitrary, isolated or purely novel in literature, the process of development can be traced, and each work can be brought into connection and affiliation with its own kind.

The comparative method presents the only satisfactory course in which general literature can be pursued. To trace it, country by country and author by author, is an impossible task, and attended with no good results in acquiring the principles of literary criticism, or any definite knowledge of the emotional thoughts of the ages, or the ways in which the experience of humanity has unfolded itself in ideal forms. It is a barren catalogue of names and works. To give merely general laws and universal statements is equally barren and unedifying. Without some basis of particular knowledge and illustrative examples, the statement of abstract laws conveys no real information, and has no tendency to develop literary taste, or supply the mind with substantial thought.

What a wilderness to wander in, what a sandy desert of details would zoölogy and anatomy be, if studied in any other than the comparative way? How full of interest, when the structural affinities are unfolded which form the basis of all classification?

Comparative literature also classifies the productions of mind according to the structure, the development, the relations not to time and place merely, but to similarities of form, and periods of social and intellectual growth; and it shows that deviations from some normal standard are not monstrosities, but legitimate and natural unfoldings of the same principle of life, under different conditions of historical, moral and social development.

Each form of literary production can be traced to its most perfect example, its trunk and branches springing from roots imbedded in the national life; its circulating sap the all-vitalizing national spirit. The deviations in form and character are in accordance with the needs to be supplied, and the ends to be answered.

How remote from us, for instance, appears the Grecian drama when, studied by itself as the production of a people wholly passed away, with a different religion, different social institutions, a form peculiar to that people, and having little affinity with any thing before or since! But when its origin is seen to be the same as that of the Hindoo, the English and the Spanish drama, and when it is brought into juxtaposition with these and the differences pointed out, we can see what the Greek chorus meant, and what are its substitutes in the modern drama. The Greek drama becomes a very near reality to us, when we can see

the truth of Blackie's assertion, that the "lyrical tragedy of the Greeks presents, in a combination elsewhere unexampled, the best element of our serious drama, our opera, our oratorio, our public worship, and our festal recreations."

So, too, with the old Grecian comedy.

In judging of this old comedy, we are to hold in mind the function that it fulfilled in its day. Civilization, as it advances, is marked by the great division and subdivision of the various offices to be filled and the work to be performed. We have now the stage with its burlesque, the circus with its clown, the review with its critic, the newspaper with its leader and its correspondent, the illustrated journal and the daily and weekly *Punch* and *Spirit of the Times*: the functions of all these were united in the Athenian comedy.

It was the Greek æsthetic sense that reduced to order and system the ebullition of Saturnalian license and produced this unique exhibition. And herein is the chief value of Greek literature as a basis of comparison with other literatures, that it pursues a normal order of development, and can be studied in its essential laws, free from extraneous influences and modifying elements. In every nation, before a general civilization has tamed the manners and produced an average uniformity of feeling and conduct, there have existed these seasons of fun and boisterous mirth: all-fools' days, carnivals, December liberties, Saturnalia, etc., both among heathen and Christian nations. Among the Romans, at these times, all distinction of rank between master and slave was leveled; no punishment was visited upon drunkenness or laziness. And from statutes made by the early fathers against masquerading, running around in the disguises of fawns and calves and other animals, we see how common and deeply rooted were these revelries. In fact, so deeply rooted were they that the church found it impossible to eradicate them; and therefore they were adopted and appropriated for the benefit of the church. Of all things hard to change, that of an old custom rooted in some natural tendency is the hardest. The modern drama has, undoubtedly, its chief source in the celebration of the rite that made the very core of the Christian religion, the liturgy of the mass. As the representations in the old Eleusinian mysteries lie at the basis of the Greek drama, so the performance of the mystery of Redemption is the main source of the modern drama. From the time of Gregory the Great in the sixth century, the celebration of the mass has constituted the very essence of worship in the Roman Catholic Church.

The "mysteries" of the middle ages grew out of the attempts to make the great events of Scripture history a visible representation of divine truths. So we find in the Grecian religion, before the drama arose, a representation at Delphi of the fight with the Pytho, the flight

and expiation of Apollo ; at Eleusis, the rape of Proserpine, and the tearful search for her by Demeter ; of the betrothal of Dionysus to the King Archon, in which the most beautiful youths took part. In the union of these oriental, mythic legends with the orderly and solemn Dorian choral song, we have the beginnings of the Greek drama.

Like the Greek drama, the English had its origin in religion. From the spectacles intended to set forth the great events of religious history, under the direction of the church, was born the modern drama, which, in each European country has become developed according to the national genius, and the predominant spirit of the time. In Spain it never freed itself from its ecclesiastical taint ; in England, however, it shared in the universal ferment of ideas, and in a few generations flowered out in the drama of Shakespeare, the most wonderful production of this species of poetic art.

The miracle plays can be traced back as far as the twelfth century. Gradually, allegorical representations of the virtues and vices were introduced, and what were called the moral plays, or moralities, superseded the mysteries or miracles. In these moral plays, the devil was the scriptural personage represented ; and in some burlesque or ridiculous shape he was made the butt of the whole piece. Thus, as in the old Greek comedy, the comic element was developed from what was originally the most solemn and serious view. Only by comparing different literatures can we arrive at the central or primal idea of any particular form. We see, too, that there are survivals here, as in other spheres of organic and social life. Forms are perpetuated which have no root in modern life. To distinguish these survivals is an essential point of literary criticism.

In this method, too, we see that not only is the distinction between ancient and modern literature, but also that between classical and romantic entirely abolished.

The classic Iliad or Odyssey is as romantic as any tale of the crusaders, and the romantic Shakespeare just as classical as Æschylus or Aristophanes.

It is a large but not an exaggerated claim that Mr. Freeman makes when he says : " I do not for a moment hesitate to say that the discovery of the comparative method in philology, in mythology — let me add in politics and history, and the whole range of human thought — marks a stage in the progress of the human mind at least as great and memorable as the revival of Greek and Latin learning. It has broken down the middle wall of partition between kindred races and kindred studies ; it has swept away barriers which fenced off certain times and languages as ' dead ' and ' ancient ; ' it has taught us that there is no such thing as ' dead ' and ' living ' languages, as ' ancient ' and ' modern '

history ; that no parts of history are more truly modern, if by modern we mean full of living interest and teaching for our own times, than those which the delusive name of 'ancient' would seem to brand as something which has wholly passed away, something which, for any practical use in these later times, may safely be forgotten."

So, literature can be studied not in the isolated works of different ages, but as the production of the same great laws, and the embodiment of the same universal principles in all times.

In a course of comparative literature, poetry must necessarily occupy a prominent place, not merely because it is the method in which emotion expresses itself through idealised forms, but because it is the embodiment of the national life, and the truest unfolding of the national spirit. Poetry reveals to us better than any history, the very soul of a people, its interior life, of which its outer accomplishments and its recorded acts are but the flitting shadows. Vitally significant, and to be remembered are the words of Schlegel : "Truly creative poetry can issue only from the interior life of a people, and from religion, which is the root of that life."

This comparative method is necessary in order to become fully acquainted with our own literature. There is much practical truth in the remark of Whitney : "Our native language is too much a matter of unreflective habit with us, for us to be able to set it in the full light of an objective study. Something of the same difficulty is felt in relation also to our native literature ; we hardly know what it is, and what it is worth, until we come to compare it with another." It is in order to perfect the acquaintance with our own rich literature, that we must bring together the best from the general treasury of the world. The roots of all our present literature are to be found in the remotest ages.

The infant literature of all nations, where there has been an integral development, shows the same simple, rythmical form. It is epic, recounting in measured chant personal and national events, the exploits of heroes, the changes of nature as deeds of living beings, and all the phenomena of the universe in concrete and synthetic forms of imaginary existence. Gradually, in the course of ages, the germs of ideas contained in the great works of imaginative genius are unfolded in their diverse relations, and a variation of types takes place, so that lyric bursts of sentiment and emotion succeed the calm, impassioned contemplation of nature and of the past.

But analysis does not stop here : it passes over into a higher synthesis, wherein the objective and subjective are united in the form of the drama, which is the union of epic and lyric on a higher plane, a vital union of the two. So, when a literature of prose shall have been developed, it will follow the same law ; first, history or objective narra-

tion ; second, philosophy, or subjective analysis ; lastly, eloquence, in which both appear in a perfected form on a higher plane.

By this method we consider literature not in its specific details, but in its universal relations, and its philosophic development. Unless there be a philosophy of literature, its consideration is of but little moment. Unless it can be shown to have laws of unfolding, and to be intimately united with our social condition, our inner being, our essential nature, it is but an empty catalogue of names and dates wearisome to contemplate. What does it avail to know that Homer lived at such a period and wrote such and such books ; that Shakespeare penned so many tragedies and so many comedies ; that this writer was sublime, and that one turgid ; this period classic and the other romantic ; this one witty and the other dry, together with all the numerous items that go to make up what is called literary history ? It may be enumerated with about as little profit as the items of a cabinet of fossils, or the beggarly account of empty boxes on an apothecary's shelf.

But there is a philosophy of literature ; it is a sphere under the dominion of law ; every department is a necessary development of man's faculties and powers ; there is a scientific basis for poetry and for prose ; for poetry in its different kinds, and for prose in its multiform variety ; there is a sequence of cause and effect in the most seemingly capricious manifestation in the realm of literature. The critical spirit of our day demands the application of the scientific method to these products of man's fancy, thought and ideal imagination. These products are not unreal and intangible, though they have no existence except in words ; they obey laws as sure, if not as exactly determinable, as the sun and stars. And in this way literature becomes worthy of most earnest study and consideration ; it belongs to the fine arts ; it is an embodiment of the ideal, like sculpture, painting and music ; it has its roots in the soil of man's nature, in his love of the beautiful, his aspiration for the perfect, his need of free expansion and spontaneous exertion, or playful exercise, of imagination and thought. In entering within the circle of pure literature, we leave behind the region of the materially useful, the practical and the specifically scientific, and enter upon the sphere of art. A class of emotions is called out wholly different from those with which we read a scientific treatise, a mathematical demonstration or a polemic discussion. Hence, literature derives from this its refining and its elevating character ; it makes us more human, and its study was once rightly called the study of the humanities, and it is needful as a counterpoise to the exclusively material and practical tendencies of our time.

Comparative literature shows us that all the great poems embodying the popular national spirit are structurally and vitally related. They contain the essential principles of art, the eternal laws of human nature,

human society and human progress. They give us the memorial imprints of the early peoples better than any monument, than any history. When studied in the light of comparative literature, no one will class them with the *Æneid* or *Paradise Lost*; but the classic *Iliad* and the wild, rude *Nibelungenlied* will be found nearly related, offspring of the same creative spirit, and nurtured in the same way.

The progress of epic development can be seen most clearly in the Hindoo and that of the Middle Ages; and the same process undoubtedly holds good of the Greek or Homeric epics.

In the time of the Carlovingsians, the illustrious chiefs, the leaders, the lords sang their own songs of exhortation and triumph, just as Achilles himself was a minstrel. In the eleventh century, professed poets exist, who expand and illustrate these simple utterances, and their productions are called *chansons de gestes*. These were sung by the jongleurs, or chanted in a monotonous strain accompanied by some musical stringed instrument. At first these songs were devotional and warlike, and then amatory. By a natural expansion and evolution, as different personages were introduced and a more complicated intrigue entered, these poems became romances, and the imagination of the poet dealing with the material in an ideal way, not only made the gods, but also heroes and history.

The poet by profession, after the singer ceases to be the chief himself, was called in India *kavis*, in Greece *aoidos*, in French, *jongleur*.

The epic marks a period in the development of humanity, when it is no longer in subjection to nature, overpowered by the universal life, and uttering only its prayer and its cry. It denotes a stage of self-consciousness and personal activity, of the possession of individual powers, of freedom and thought. Man is no longer identified with God, but the gods think, speak and act like man, without man's necessary limitations of time and space. The epic is the first form of history; it is fact and event, seen through the medium of idealizing tradition.

The great epic, although we see it as a whole, is a development as gradual in its stages as the productions of the natural world. It is not handed down all written, like the book of Mormon from heaven, and one fine day dug up in the field; but there is incorporated in it by slow growth the thought, life, feeling and struggles of many generations. Its seeds are the ballad, the story of some renowned exploit, the lament for some departed hero, the hymn of triumphant exultation, the metrical outburst of pride of race, the legend of gods and heroes sung in the banquet hall, and among the assembled people. At last some genius combines these separate and individual fragments into a whole, and we have a picture of an epoch, an age, a race, races grouped together and transfigured by a poetic ideal.

The first perception of this law of spontaneous growth, of a vital rooting in the accumulated soil of generations, led to the theory that the Homeric poems were not the product of any one mind, but a selection made from the floating myths, songs and legends of the Grecian race. Perhaps the truth in regard to these great national epics will be found to lie between the two theories, of some wonderful genius, descending like a meteor from the skies on the one hand, and a selection from ready-made and separate materials, on the other. These poems have lived, because a genius could take up the fragments of ore, and give them their unity, their perfection of form, by fusing them and casting them into one mould, through the all-liquifying energy of idealized thought in idealized language.

The national epic is essentially the outgrowth of the mythical and legendary period, and embraces not merely individual occurrences, but individuals are a part of the social body ; and they are important only as instruments and agents working to accomplish some result in which the whole nation is involved. Around some great name of the past cluster the traditions of ages ; through the haze of reverence, imagination and patriotic zeal, great deeds become greater, symbols become persons, and the wonderful forms continue to enlarge and become more ideal and heroic, until all the actual and historic limits are lost in the cloud-land and mist of imagination. Some national struggle for existence with a foreign people, alone furnishes sufficient nucleus for this gathering of floating stories and legends.

Hence we find that those rules of the epic which are pedantically laid down as arbitrary laws by mechanical critics, that these are simply the statement of results produced by the very influences that gave it birth and form. That model of critics, J. J. Ampère, well says : " We have ceased looking upon the Iliad as an epic of the study, methodically composed by a writer of taste and philosophy, only when these popular songs of heroic Greece have been compared with those that have been a spontaneous product among other peoples at the same social epoch. In studying the Spanish romances, the ancient Germanic and Scandinavian poetry, we have learned how the different elements of the primitive epics have been formed, grouped and changed. The monuments of the Middle Ages have explained those of the early ages of Greece."

In all the great epics, there is the same mythic grandeur, and the same grotesque simplicity of representation, the same delight in infinite expansion and vastness of form. In the Hindoo, the giant Ravana causes the gods to tremble; and in the Edda, the powers of evil awaken in the Asi fear lest they themselves may be devoured. And as the wife of Sigfried undergoes the ordeal of fire to prove her chastity, so does the heroic Sita in the Hindoo story.

The old critics laid it down as essential to the epic that there should be an element of the miraculous, the wonderful, the divine. There is a truth at the basis of this, but not in the literal way, generally understood. The epic must be the unfolding of the divine idea, but to perpetuate this in forms that have become obsolete, is to destroy all the force of the poem. Through the hero must speak a universal spirit; he is not merely an individual, acting by passion, caprice and subjective interests, but he is the organ of a divine, objective power.

The epic treats some part of the nation's history as the unfolding of a divine purpose; to accomplish this, gods as well as men must co-operate, and the prosperity of foes, no less than the disasters of friends must all contribute to its fulfillment. Thus is the epic raised into an ideal sphere, and the intervention of divine beings is nothing miraculous but is in accordance with the ground-idea itself. The grand deeds are performed from grand motives, and over all life and its events hovers a spirit of noble striving and of grand self-forgetfulness.

Thus old and yet forever new is this record of human souls. The mystery of life and nature pressed upon all these early seers, as upon each open mind to-day.

The world was to them a magic isle, and all visible nature the outgrowth of invisible powers of good and evil. They heard "aery tongues on sands and shores and desert wildernesses;" they saw "calling shapes and beckoning shadows dire," for they felt the stirrings within of immortal powers, and they saw embodied without an eternal justice and truth.

That criticism which can see only one kind of excellence is narrowing and belittling. In making a study of comparative literature we seek to distinguish different classes, different periods, different works of genius and power, in order to discern something of that unity which is in all the embodiments of man's higher life; to hear something of that spherical music which comes from all whom the divine breath touches; to trace in each great work of literature, as Shelley says of Lear, "an episode in that great poem which all poets, like the co-operating thoughts of one great mind, have built up since the beginning of the world."

PRE-ISLAMIC LITERATURE.

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Though the exact date is unknown, the Arabic arose soon after the dispersion at Babel, and was born out of the Syriac and Hebrew. Of its several dialects, that of Himyar and Koreish were the most remarkable, the former bearing a greater affinity to the Syriac, the latter to the original Hebrew. The Koreishite was regarded as the pure or perspicuous Arabic, as being preserved from all vulgarisms and provincialisms, and being the language of state and literature.

For a long period writing was unknown; the preservation of annals and literature being delegated entirely to the retentive faculty. The characters have undergone many changes, the earliest form having been the Himyarite alphabet, called by the Arabs *El Musnad*, or columnar. It strongly resembles the Ethiopic, which was derived from it. A later invention of the characters was made not many years before Mohammed by *Moramer Ebn Morra*. The *Estrangelo*, a Syrian character, became the model on which the Arabic called and identical with the *Cufic*, was formed. The characters were perfected and beautified some 327 years after Mohammed.

As in the *Tales of Chaucer*, and in the Homeric epics, we see reflected the bright springtime of English and Hellenic life, so, as we open the volume of Arabic literature, we are at once confronted by the brilliant reflection of a new dawn, dewey, invigorating, inspiring. The development of pre-Islamic literature was pre-eminently poetic; history, oratory and philosophy, being committed to poetry. But the history of poetry in Arabia is a phenomenon more marvelous than any other in the world's literature, because of its prevalence, its perfection, its innate existence and absolute naturalness.

War, hospitality and eloquence formed the triple crown that Arabia claimed for her sons. The product of this combination was a literature of a rich poetic type. Delicate in sensibility, liberal in heart, vehement in thought, feeling and action, poetry arose a natural resultant, and became the true and vivid commentary upon Arabian life and Arabian nature. Poetical modes of conception were natural, the forms of imagery affluent, feeling elevated, and poetry arose the natural medium of expression. The truth of this is a necessary inference from a study of Arabian character. Keen in their faculties of perception, with a

naturally acute and vivid sensibility toward human and external nature, they were qualified for perceiving the beauty and truth of external and internal forms, and for communicating, as well as receiving, pleasures from the objects perceived. This physical perception was, moreover, quickened or tempered in a number of instances, by the purer feelings of a moral nature, as the lives of several of the court poets illustrate. In addition to sensibility, necessary for the perception of facts, came, to a certain degree, reflection, and, to a remarkable degree, memory for the retention of facts, and for the recognition of their resemblances.

In consequence poetic conceptions were natural, vigorous, antithetical, as opposed to a wretched commonalty and morbid vagueness. Poetry was an indigenous growth; the normal product of a virgin soil, brought up, not under human cultivation and inventive skill, but under the dews of heaven, and the breath of earth.

The predominance of the creative over the reflective genius, among the early Arabians, is at once seen in the wealth of its imagery. The workings of the Arabian imagination show not only a supreme energy, but a perfect consistency with the primal functions of the imagination. It suggests or furnishes noble grounds for the noble emotions. And it excites these emotions by incomparable imagery, by the choice and combination of those images which will be adaptive and most effective, and by grasping all the important ideas of the poem, at the same time preserving and modifying the relations of each. The nature, dignity, and power of the Arabian imagination consists in its grasping things by the heart, and representing them to others under the intense workings of the heart.

The mind did not try to grasp relations, absolutely necessary or deeply complicated, and so paralyze and confound all the power of imagination associative in such a matter, but great and simple sentiments came naturally to unite these elevated images, and their measured and natural harmony created a spectacle worthy to fascinate any honest heart by its gravity, sweetness and power. Perhaps our Arabian poets were, in some measure, less refined than the general poet of the west, but they were stronger; they were less calculating, but possessed greater mental energy and action. Their fancies are exhibited not under a mere meteoric display in a moment to be swallowed up in darkness, but under a strong and constant light, which makes the regular folds of their purple and gold undulate. Several European imitators of the eastern poets have arisen, and their productions are not without merit. But the ideas of *Lalla Rookh*, *The Curse of Kehama*, *The Loves of the Angels*, etc., are drawn from the head, not from the heart. So, in this respect, they are little more than decorative machines. The imitation is only literal. The Arab, with equal simplicity and pathos, has a fire, a force

of language and a depth of feeling which Goldsmith, admirable as his verse to the village in El Hegaz is, or any other, can never rival.

There is, again, in the early Arabic poetry, that freshness and individuality of language which are indispensable to poetic power and freedom: — a perfect antipode to the stilted and factitious poetic dialect which characterized so many of the European poets of the last century.

The calculating and more critical modes of existence in the west have rendered much of its poetry artificial and studied. But our Eastern bard expresses literal truth under the intense feeling of love, admiration and chivalry. Poetry was instinctive. Data to be preserved, rules of conformity, every thing was committed to poetic form, in the midst of which we are frequently bewildered by the erotic rhapsodies of bards, as by the converged rays of many suns; by the war song as by the dazzle of unbolted lightnings; by its lyrics of defiance as by the savage diapason of thunders. With such natures, noble thoughts accompanied by noble words, came from the heart. Their princely poetic heritage was, sensibility, community, enthusiasm, passion, hearts of gold.

As soon as the speaker arose to describe or defend, on the one hand the qualities of the object of his love, or on the other the liberty, humanity and justice of his tribe or cause, poetry burst forth spontaneously from his soul, and set her crown upon his brows.

Poetry, thus natural, became the medium of expression. From the abstract facts of history and science, to lofty declamation and persuasive oratory, every thing was chronicled in poetry, and preserved by the memory. It is this preservation of those genealogical and historical facts that give us the tissue of intermediate affairs, which forms such a wonderful phenomenon in the story of Arabia. Here the poetic form, no doubt, aided the retentive faculty. The rhapsodies of the bard were at once caught up by his admiring clan and soon passed into the mouths even of children. In such poetry were preserved the names of the chieftains, feats of bravery, tribal encounters, and the Arabian's glorious liberality.

The Arabians required their children to memorize their poetry, which custom was maintained through the Ommiad, and during the first part of the Abbasside dynasty. Many of these odes became national, and carried with them the testimony not of the tribe only, but of the entire Arab family. The Arabian poets, in which term is, of course, also included their descendants, the Egyptian poets, are divided into four classes according to the times in which they flourished:

1. Those of El Gahelah, literally times of ignorance, as pre-Islamic times were termed.
2. El Muchadramoon, or those who flourished shortly before, and were also the cotemporaries of Mohammed.

3. Moowalledoon, or those descended of parents one of whom was of a foreign nationality.

4. El Mutaacheroon, or later poets.

Respecting pre-Islamic poets, besides a three-fold classification according to merit, there was also a national division into city poets, and the free poets of the desert, the latter maintaining a superiority over the former.

The appearance of a poet was the occasion of great festivities among the Arabians, because he chronicled their annals and good character, and defended them in his poetry against the calumny of those who sought to defame them through the same medium.

It was their custom at the annual fair held in the market of Occaz, to enter into a poetic contest. In fact, this formed the principal feature in the festivities of the mart, as was also the case with poetry recited or sung according to custom at nearly all the other principal fairs. Here all those who entered the competition exposed and recited their individual productions before men of talent and genius, who judged upon their merits, and the production of the successful competitor was transcribed in golden letters and suspended in a corner of the Caaba at Mecca. For this reason they are called Moaalakat, the suspended ones.

A similar custom was observed at times during the second Punic war; while in memory of the battle of Regillus, when all the purpled knight-hood of Rome marched in state from the temple of Mars to the Forum, a poet would be called to aid in the solemnities of the occasion. In the contests of Occaz, Imroo'l Cays was the first to achieve eminence. Six others attained to this honor in the six following contests constituting in all the seven Moaallakat. Then Mohammed appeared and poetry fell into disuse, because, says the faithful Mohammedan chronicler, with most extravagant hyperbole, men became dumb before the beauties and methodical treatment of the Koran. The disuse, however, was occasioned by the ignorance of men as to whether the revelation of Mohammed would expunge or recognize the practice of poetry, and again, because the revelation monopolized and concentrated in itself all the attention and intellectual energies of men.

It was during this period of almost entire desuetude in the province of poetry, that much of pre-Islamic song and story became more and more a mere echo in the memory, and then lost. We have the record of an almost incredible number of poets, the annals of reigns revealing a positive bias toward poetic culture, advancement and patronage, but we have only here and there the fragmentary thoughts of princely poet-courts, whose throne and scepter have been swallowed up in a sea of forgetfulness and war, and left us but the floatings of a shattered crown.

Still, we have sufficient evidences to show the purity and natural spon-

taneity of pre-Islamic poetry. It is seen in the perfect immunity from mechanical invention on one hand, and from the paroxysms of a spurious passion on the other, in all those ballads and partial ballads that have come down to us, and especially in the seven famous Moaallakat, that Pleiades in the heaven of pre-Islamic literature.

Mr. Palgrave, in an essay on the poet *Omar*, published in Fraser's Magazine, says: "Poverty of means, isolation of circumstance and insecurity of life, had, during the long ante-Islamic period, cramped the energy, narrowed the ideas and marred the taste of almost all, and, indeed, in some degree, of all, Arab poets." In much of which there is some truth and plausibility. But the criticism, unmodified, is misleading and injudicious. For when we criticise Arabic literature, we must have regard to the times, the culture and genius of the nation, relative advantages, sources from which materials could be drawn and utilized, and the different human types in the midst of which it flourished. Criticising according to such laws, the critic will find much to admire, little to censure.

Pre-Islamic poetry undoubtedly lacks, as does all Arabic poetry, in some degree, poetic judgment and refinement. It is undoubtedly inferior in many respects to that later Arabic literature, which found its culmination in the illustrious reign of Haroun El Raschid and the Abbasside dynasty, which is characterized by a more tempered tone, a more elevated culture and grace, and by the widening and strengthening of its ideas, induced by the introduction of the subjectivity of Sufism. But the warlike spirit of the times, as we shall note hereafter, fostered rather than dwarfed poetic genius and development. Again, any criticism upon pre-Islamic poetry, to be just and philosophic, must be founded upon this knowledge;—the strong presumption, in fact absolute certainty, that writing for a long time was unknown. Again, that many of the poems, as they have been handed down to us, were delivered impromptu, in obedience to the demands of the moment, without any premeditation whatever. So that Mohammed ed Damiri hath truly said: "Wisdom hath alighted upon three things, the brain of the Franks, the hands of the Chinese, and the tongues of the Arabs." And finally, the knowledge that they were entirely destitute of any such thing as poetic science, or articulated system for the government of poetic diction or metre; and yet their poetry is the very perfection of poetic art, as from it exclusively, in after ages, the laws for the government of poetry were deduced. Says Bacon: "Poetry serveth and conferreth to magnanimity, morality, and to delectation." So, in Arabia, as poetry and the poetic sentiment made progress, and gained greater ascendancy, the national mind became elevated, and the national heart ennobled. We find this verified, if we trace the consecutive records and events in

the history of the courts of Hira, Ghassan and others, that produced so many poet princes and princely poets.

We may enumerate three forces that worked together to contribute so much to pre-Islamic poetry :

First. The resources and flexibility of the language. The Arabic language has the most copious vocabulary, is the most extensively used and most perfectly formed, of all the Shemitic languages. It is rich in grammatical forms, and abounding in synonymous terms. This latter quality is nowhere shown to a greater advantage in exemplifying the flexibility of the language, than in the late autobiographical memoirs of Faris e' Shidiak. The language following the mind, and giving birth to its offspring, and free from the lumber of particles, which clogs our modern tongues, leaves a mysterious vagueness between the relation of word to word, which materially assists the sentiment, not the sense, of the poem. When verbs and nouns have each one many different significations, only the radical or general idea suggests itself. Rich and varied synonyms, illustrating the finest shades of meaning, are artfully used ; now scattered to startle us by distinctness, now to form, as it were, a star, about which, dimly seen, satellites revolve. In fact there is, in the Semitic dialect, a copiousness of rhyme, which leaves the poet almost unfettered to choose the appropriate and desired expression, so that the stranger speaking Arabic becomes poetical as naturally as he would be witty in French and philosophic in German.

Its power is again seen in its richness and harmony, and in its abundance of rythmical words. in so much so that it was always a positive requirement in the composition of Arabic poetry that in whatever word the first line terminates, all the following lines must terminate in a word rhyming with it. In fact, the Arabic is a language in which, as in the Italian, it is almost impossible not to rhyme.

Again, the language was employed with greater integrity and purity during pre-Islamic times, and the first dawn of Mohammedanism. The formation of sentences was simple, but syntactical. They were guilty of no gross solecisms, but were extremely natural and plain, yet richly imaginative, while those of later date are more artificial and ornate.

The language was terse and vigorous, the style sententious. But literature, as restored under the Abbasside dynasty, partook more of the nature of scientific prose, and became somewhat degenerated in point of flexibility by the employment of circumlocutions instead of idiomatic formations. The Arab poet draws the grand outline and gives the master touches powerfully standing out, leaving the reader to supply the sentiment which the scene is intended to express, while Europeans, by stippling and minute touches, produce a miniature on a grand scale

so objective as to exhaust rather than to arouse reflection. As the poet is a creator, the Arab's is poetry, the European's, versical description.

The second force that contributed to pre-Islamic poetry was the character of the people. Besides the mental characteristics already partially mentioned, their physical structure also contributed to the development of poetic taste and a poetic literature. Careful and extensive anatomical research into the physical constitution of the Arabians, shows them to possess above all other human types the pattern bodily fabric and the most perfect development in the organic structures subservient to the mental faculties. They are regarded by some as affording the prototype, the primitive and standard model of the human species. Their organs of sense are exquisitely acute, their physical structure throughout more perfect than any European type, and their intelligence proportionate to their physical perfection. The result of this constitutional perfection and force was a positive contribution to the fund of mental energy.

Again, the insular position of the country, preventing degeneracy by commerce or conquest, in the language, and the mode of life to which the Arabians as a nation adhered as being capable of receiving impressions that knew no variation for centuries, served to preserve the integrity of the language at a time when a national literature had not yet reached its full stature and power. The incidents of life on the peninsula still granted valor, love, liberality and satire to engross the acute sensibilities of the chivalrous Bedowin, so that when Mohammed, in the name and by the sword of Islam, called the Arabs into action and collision with foreign nations, the language had received all the development which it could obtain from the creative and refining impulses of poetry and eloquence.

The third force that entered as a contributive element was the character of the times. The times were turbulent. The people, by nature, were enthusiastic, vehement, warlike. This belligerent character of the times, and temperament of the people, found its expression in poetry. The national spirit of war quickened the sensibility, fired the enthusiasm to long declamation in the defense of justice, and revenge of injustice; it lashed the imagination till the feelings of speaker and hearer arose imperious in anticipative triumph, or were scourged into a foam of anger at the idea of injustice.

The finest and most original works of imagination have been produced in times of political convulsion, and in a rude state of society. Thus the *Iliad*, the *Odyssey*, the *Divine Comedy*, appeared in dark and partially civilized times. Religious enthusiasm, chivalrous love and honor, and liberty, are the three mighty principles that sway the masses of men. Sometimes they act singly, and sometimes in amalgamation; at

all times are they singularly adapted to call forth extraordinary mental energies, and powerful intellects. So Shakspeare, in no insignificant measure, was produced by the reformation, Wordsworth by the French revolution, the plebeian poets by the Licinian contests, and Dante by that memorable conflict which Emperor Frederic the Second had maintained against the church.

Thus Arabia, embroiled by intestine wars and tribal encounters, directly produced through these many heroic poets. An illustration in proof is the war of Dahis, famous in Arabian history and poetry, and illustrative of the pride of Arab chivalry. Many famous poets appeared during this war, celebrated among whom are Nabegha and Labid, the satirist; and, eclipsing all, the poet warrior Antara, author of one of the Moaallakat, whose feats have been transmitted to modern times in the apocryphal but engaging "*Romance of Antar*."

All Arabian poems show a similarity in treatment. They open, almost invariably, in praising the beauties and qualities of the object of their love; almost always a female, though sometimes a male friend; their intense passion for, and intense suffering during the absence of such an one. Sometimes the poem opens in describing the ruins of the house of a friend, as in the great Arabian poem of Job; and then passes on to praise their fearlessness and courage in war, their earnest desire to render hospitality, the description of their horse or dromedary, or at times some phenomenon in nature; and again, often times moralizing in rich and truthful suggestiveness upon the vanities or responsibilities of man's fugitive life.

Imroo 'l Cays, author of the first Moaallaka, suspended in the Kaaba, was an Arabian chief of princely accomplishments, both in poetry and warlike valor. His poem, ranked by many as first in excellence among the Moaallakat, contains many touching and beautiful allusions to his own checkered and melancholy career. He is mentioned by the Grecian writers Bocopius and Nonnosul, who make mention of an embassy sent by Justinian to reinstate Cays in command of the Kindinian and Maaddinian tribes, the power of which, representing the Himyar dynasty in Central Arabia, had been wasted by faction, and the relentless enemy of Mundzir III; and also to aid him with forces against the Persian vassal, the Prince of Hira.

Meeting with but little success, he sought for succour at the court of Constantinople, but died on his way back, 540 A. D. The Moaallaka of Cays contains seventy couplets. He says of his cousin, with whom he was enamored:

"Before thy face all illumined darkness fleeth away,
As the beacons of monks with mountain darkneses play."

In a night of mental suffering he cries :

“ How immeasurable art thou O! night, thy stars
Seemed chained to the solid and eternal hills.”

His ready poetic genius shows itself in an interview with a friend, who propounded him several enigmas in poetry, Cays making immediate answer in rhythm to the question.

Turafa Ebn el Abd, author of the second *Moaallaka*, flourished in the reign of King Omar Ebn Hind, and died about seventy years before the appearance of Islamism. Many of his sayings have become proverbial, through the justness and universality of their application:

“ Nor will I plagiarize and thus usurp another poet's throne.

Without it rich am I, and not ignoble they who pilfer beauties others wrought.
For the best couplet which thy mind can say or pen,
Is that of which it shall be said, it breathes creative truth and thought.”

El Harith, author of the third *Moaallaka* was a leper, and delivered his prize poem extempore, while in the presence of King Omar Ibn Hind. The cause of it was a discussion between the tribes of Beker and Tuglib, the two sons of Waeel.

Lubade, author of the fourth *Moaallaka*, lived in the first stages of Mohammedanism, to which he became convert, and died, it is said, at the advanced age of 140 years. He was distinguished for his eloquence among his people, and is said to have been one of the compilers of the Koran. His monodies on life and love are touchingly sad, yet sweet. Nothing can be more tender, more pathetic, than the use made of lovers' separations and long absences, by the old Arab poets. Whoever reads the *Moaallaka* of Lubade will find thoughts at once so plaintive and so noble, that even Dr. Carlyle's learned verse cannot wholly efface them.

Indeed many Arabian episodes deserve equally as high a tribute as that which Goethe paid to the *Sukuntala* in the great Indian epic of Vyasa.

Zoheir, author of the fifth *Moaallaka*, wrote more extensively than the others, on what may be termed ethics. His poems were termed periodical, for, contrary to the general rule, he usually occupied a year in composing, revising and subjecting them to criticism. He says:

“ Who shows not deference to the opinions of others,
Shall be ground by the teeth, and by the hoofs shall be trod.
The defender of honor himself shall be honored,
But he who blasphemes shall be cursed by his God.

Omar Ibn Calthoum, author of the sixth *Moaallaka*, was the chief of the tribe of Tugleb, between which and that of Beker a bitter enmity had existed, known in Arab history as the famous war of Basus. The affair being submitted to the judgment of Omar, son of Mundzir, a treaty of peace was concluded. In the council of peace, Omar Ibn Calthoum arose and delivered a poem, his *Moaallaka*, extempore, which

in boasting strain resembles Abd el Mutaleb, Mohammed's uncle, when he says :

" Passion mounts in our hearts for glory's award.
And our souls' chief amusement is the play of the sword."

The seventh Moaallaka, by Antara, is the purest in diction and the most finished and elegant of any of the preceding prize poems. He was Arabia's poet-hero. " Mercy, my lord," says he, " is the noblest quality of the noble." His heart expands with the thoughts of Ibla's faith, purity and affection, and it is her moral as well as her material existence that makes her the hero's hope, hearing and sight. In brief, we see in Antar

" A love exalted high,
By all the glow of chivalry."

Many other poets appeared, the productions of quite a number of whom will stand favorable comparison with the prize poems.

Adi, a renowned city poet, was patronized by Norman V Ibn Cabus, of the Lakhimite dynasty, in whose reign he flourished. His life illustrates the history of Hira. In 575, A. D., he was dignified by the court of Persia with the office of Arabic secretary to the monarch El Nabegha. Adi, in the latter part of his life, appeared as a poet of great eminence. In the midst of perplexity and grief he cries out :

" Leave me, O Ommaya, to my weary cares
To-night, with mountain burdens and standing stars."

The poet Ommaya Ibn Abi Sult appeared one day in the council chamber, while in the hands of one of the members were golden plates, upon which were red and white roses. On his entrance, Ommaya was asked to describe them. He did so at once in the following beautifully suggestive and complimentary couplet :

" The perfume of the roses is but the perfume of thine excellence,
Here the shed blood of thine enemies meets the white purity of thy beneficence."

Arabic poetry, more particularly in its first dawn, was pre-eminently objective. The Arab muse loved martial movement, active passion, freedom from introspectiveness, the boast of personal and tribal power and heraldry. But later, when the spirit of monasticism, which originally had its seat in India and upper Asia, had penetrated into Arabia, and the Arabians had come in contact with Indian, Greek and Persian literature, they devoted more time to study and meditation, and thus originated Mohammedan asceticism in the African continent. It was at this point that the subjective element, the pre-eminent character of Suffism first entered and began to develop itself in the Arabic literature.

A remarkable rhetorical peculiarity employed throughout the whole range of Arabic poetry, and which, not understood, is quite offensive to

our western ideas of taste and fastidiousness, is the employment of unrestricted erotic and bacchanalian language. But it is employed by our oriental scholar — especially noticeable in *Antar* — in treating of the deep experiences and sacred functions of piety and benevolence. Another characteristic which so pains the European taste is the excessive indulgence in personal boasting. But censurable as this would be in western literature, it was not so with the Arabians where there existed a perfect community of feeling. The poet was the oracle of his tribe, whose words, in their martial tread and ring, remind us of the war lyrics of Macaulay.

Philosophic thought or literature developed at first very slowly, and in its development has always been pantheistic. So our Arab poet says of the valley of Akik :

“O my friend, this is Akik, then stand by it,
Endeavoring to be distracted by love if not a lover.”

The esoteric meaning of which is — Man, this is a lovely portion of God's creation, then love it, and so love, or learn to love the perfections of thy Supreme Friend. This pantheism of the Arabians may afford the explanation how they have found such congenial friends among the Germans and many of the English, and such foes in the first Reformers and Byzantine critics. Still there are powers of penetrative reasoning, of subtle logic, that, only developed, would make no insignificant warfare against the more gauntleted powers of the west.

The purity and mental freedom of Arabian poetry suffered irreparable loss when the destinies of the Arabians were swallowed up in the destiny of the Mohammedan empire.



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